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## REQUIRED READING FOR THE CHAUTAUQUA LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC CIRCLE.

### THE ODYSSEY IN ART.

BY EUGENE PARSONS.



Ulysses.

From an antique gem.

THE story of Ulysses is made up of his adventures and wanderings on his voyage from Troy to Ithaca. Ten years after the taking of Troy, he reached his native land, having traveled far and passed through many thrilling experiences. The strange

will and sailed to the island of the Cyclops, sometimes called Sicily. Landing, they hunted wild goats and soon were feasting gloriously.

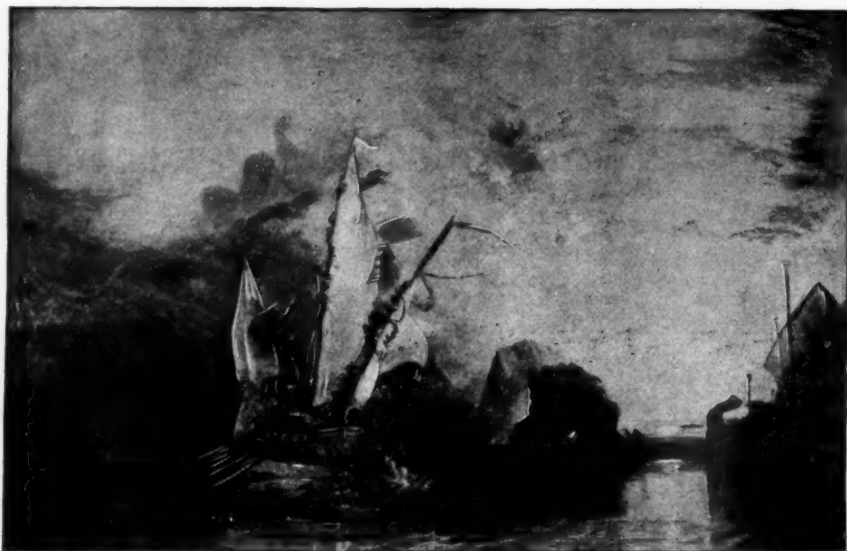
peoples and countries he saw, and the peculiar circumstances of his return home furnished an inexhaustible store of materials for Greek and Etruscan painters and sculptors. Modern artists have not only been entertained by the lively narrative of Ulysses' exploits and wayfarings, but have been spurred to paint the scenery of the Odyssey and to sculpture its statuesque figures.

Setting sail on the homeward journey, Ulysses' twelve ships were borne by the winds to Ismarus. He took the city and carried off the women and much plunder; but the neighboring Cicones gathered in great numbers and defeated the Greeks. Putting out to sea, they were overtaken by a tempest. Driven past Malea by wind and wave, they came to the land of the Lotus-Eaters. Here some of the Ithacans, having eaten of the flowery food, were forthwith seized with a desire to abide there, forgetful of home. But Ulysses dragged them away against their

Leaving the other ships and crews here, Ulysses, with his own ship and company, ventured forth and found the cave of Polyphemus, a shepherd of huge size who cared naught for men or gods. Entering the vast cavern by the sea with twelve picked men, he foolishly waited for the Cyclops to come home in the evening with his flocks. The giant discovered the unwelcome strangers and ate two of them for supper. In the morning he devoured two more, and, driving forth the sheep, placed a large boulder at the entrance, shutting them within. But in this time of extremest peril, Ulysses' cunning failed him not. His wit proved superior to the Cyclops' strength. During the day he formed a plan to put out the monster's single eye, which was in the middle of his forehead. Finding the giant's club of hard green wood, Ulysses sharpened one end to a fine point, intending to thrust it heated into his eye when closed in sleep. This was done the following night, Polyphemus having first been stupefied with wine. Then Ulysses lashed the rams three together and bound a man under the middle one. He curled himself beneath the giant's favorite ram and clung to the thick wool. Thus they escaped from the blinded Cyclops, who stood at the doorway as the sheep passed out and put his hands over their backs. When they had rejoined their comrades in the ship, Ulysses shouted to Polyphemus, taunting him for his dullness.

Lifting an immense rock, he flung it over their heads into the sea, which washed them back toward the land. Only by dint of hard rowing did they keep out of his reach. Then he thought he would lure the hero back with

sepulchral reliefs representing similar scenes. Different incidents of the story have been chosen for pictorial representation by Poussin [poo-saŋ], Wiertz, Decamp, Leigh, Mulready, and others. Turner's "Ulysses deriding



From a painting by Turner.

Ulysses deriding Polyphemus.

flattering words. Failing in this, he prayed to his father Neptune that Ulysses might never reach home—or at least that he might be greatly delayed on the way and lose all his ships and men.

None of the events related in the first part of Ulysses' tale were illustrated by any known works of antique art. Duncanson, an American painter, has pictured the tired mariners in the lovely isle of the Lotus-Eaters; Kanoldt represented them hunting goats in a Sicilian landscape. The myth of the Cyclops gave rise to many ancient vase-paintings, if the rough outlines on Greek and Etruscan pottery of earlier times can be so called. These crude designs of prehistoric workmen are interesting more for their archaeological than their esthetic value. The grotesque shapes of Ulysses' comrades and of the giant on some vases still extant justify Miss Edwards' sarcasm. Later ceramic\* decorations are more artistic, as are the groups of statuary and the

"Polyphemus" is one of the masterpieces of English painting.

In their voyagings, these old-time seamen next came to the isle of Æolus, ruler of the winds, who royally entertained them. At parting, he gave Ulysses a bag containing all the winds except the one to bear them homeward. When in sight of Ithaca, a sailor opened this wallet. Out flew the blasts and blew the ships back to Æolus, who roughly refused further help. This episode has called forth two works of art,—an antique gem and a picture by Carstens.

Again on the deep they sailed six days, wearily rowing without a wind, till they reached Læstrygonia. In this fabled country they met their worst calamity. Finding a fair harbor, with jutting cliffs on either side, they moored their ships in the calm water. Ulysses alone tied his vessel to a rock just outside the hollow haven. Climbing a craggy hill, he spied no signs of life except the curling smoke, and sent two of his company with a herald to explore the place. Near a town

\*[Se ram'ic.] Of or belonging to pottery. From a Greek word meaning potters' clay.



they met a stalwart damsel coming down a steep hill to draw water. Taken home by her they met her parents, who were man-eaters of enormous bulk. The king caught up one of the visitors for his dinner, and the other two hastily fled to the ships. Hurrying forth, the loathsome monster raised the loud war cry in the streets. In answer to his call, a host of Brobdingnagians\* rushed to the shore. These hurled great rocks at the ships and crews, destroying them all. Ulysses, in his barque outside the harbor, barely escaped their attack by putting out to sea.

In 1848, four wall-paintings were discovered on the Esquiline Hill,† which represent the heralds meeting the king's daughter, the Læs-tryg'ō-nes stalking toward the harbor, attacking the crews, and, just beyond the bloody *mêle*, Ulysses escaping with one galley. These fine frescoes and others of the same series are now in the Vatican. There were originally ten consecutive panels. They were probably painted by a talented Greek in

The fourth of the Roman wall-paintings, already mentioned, is a fairly successful attempt to represent an Odyssey landscape. In the background, Ulysses is seen on Circe's isle, climbing a hill to obtain a view of the new regions. The men being divided into two companies under Eurylochus and himself, it fell to the lot of the former to explore the woodland. "In the forest glades they found the halls of Circe builded of polished stone, in a place of wide prospect. And all around the palace mountain-bred wolves and lions were roaming, which she had bewitched."\* Within, the goddess was sweetly singing as she wove a splendid tapestry. At her invitation, all went in except the leader who suspected some harmful guile. They heedlessly drank of a delicious but drugged potion, and were all transformed into swine by a stroke of her wand. Eurylochus, hastening back to the ship, told the story and besought Ulysses not to go near Circe. But the hero was obdurate. On the way Hermes met him and gave him



Sea fight of the Greeks and the Læstrygones.  
From an Etruscan wall-painting.

the Augustan age, who faithfully reproduced the details of Homer's graphic narrative.

\*[Brōb-ding-nāg'-i-ans.] Colossal inhabitants of Brobdingnag, one of the countries visited by Gulliver, the hero of Dean Swift's romance. These giants are represented "about as tall as an ordinary spire steeple."

†[Es'qui line.] One of the seven hills on which Rome was built.

an herb, whose potent virtue made him proof against the baleful arts of the nymph. Following the god's instructions, he succeeded in rescuing his enchanted comrades. After spending a year with Circe, he was told by her to visit Hades. There he would learn

\* From Butcher and Lang's translation, used throughout this article.

from the dead soothsayer Tiresias what mis-  
haps were yet before him and how he must  
proceed to reach Ithaca in safety.

The fifth of the Esquiline wall-paintings  
shows stately Circe welcoming Ulysses at  
the door of her palace, also a later moment  
when she falls before him, at the failure of  
her charm, and begs for mercy. This dra-  
matic scene is depicted on Greek vases and  
in a Pompeian wall-painting. The fair en-  
chantress appears in the same supplicating  
attitude or engaged in magical occupations,  
in the sculptured decorations on antique  
gems, lamps, mirrors, and sarcophagi. The  
myth of Circe has furnished a wealth of pic-  
torial materials for Botticelli [bot-te-chel'le],  
Guido, Romney, Preller, Ruthart, Chalon,  
Riviere, and a host of others.

Sailing from Circe's island, Ulysses passed  
to the outer boundary of the world, and on  
the further bank of the broad ocean-stream  
found the entrance to the infernal kingdom  
at "a rock and the meeting of two waters."  
Here he sacrificed sheep, as Circe had directed,  
calling upon the shades with vows and pray-  
ers. And to him flocked the ghosts of the de-  
parted, but Ulysses suffered none to draw  
nigh till he saw Tiresias, who foretold the

rade Elpenor and with his mother An-ti-cle'ia.  
Then there gathered to him a crowd of phan-  
toms—daughters and wives renowned in leg-  
end and song. When Per-seph'o-ne had  
scattered the throng of women, Agamemnon,  
Achilles, and others approached, eager to in-  
quire concerning their dear ones in the land  
of sunshine. He saw Minos judging the  
dead, "the mighty Orion driving wild beasts  
together over the mead of asphodel"; the  
gigantic Tit'y-os stretched on the ground,  
gnawed at his liver by two vultures; Tanta-  
lus, standing in deep water that vanished  
away from his thirsty lips, and just over his  
head tempting fruits that he could never  
reach; Sisyphus, "heaving and straining"  
with useless efforts to roll a stone to the top  
of a hill; Hercules, with bow ready to shoot,  
terrorizing the shades on all sides. Mean-  
while myriads of specters rushed up with  
"wondrous clamor" and Ulysses retreated,  
filled with nervous horror lest the dread Gor-  
gon should appear. On his return to the  
ship, they made their way swiftly with oar  
and wind back to Circe's isle. There they  
buried Elpenor, piling up a barrow over his  
ashes; on the mound was placed the oar  
with which he had rowed during his life, as



From a painting by Briton Riviere. Circe and the enchanted comrades of Ulysses.

chief events narrated later in the poem and  
his death at a happy old age. Being informed  
by the seer that he might talk with whom-  
ever of the shades he wished by letting them  
drink the dark blood in the trench he had  
dug, Ulysses held converse with his lost com-

rade Elpenor and with his mother An-ti-cle'ia.  
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and wind back to Circe's isle. There they  
buried Elpenor, piling up a barrow over his  
ashes; on the mound was placed the oar  
with which he had rowed during his life, as

he requested Ulysses in his conversation in  
the underworld.  
The exciting episode of Ulysses' visit to  
the abode of the deceased, as told in the  
eleventh Odyssey, is a masterly piece of de-  
scription, such as only a mighty wizard of

the imagination could produce. It contains many vivid word-pictures, drawn by a few telling strokes, while some of the images are enough in the vague to throw an air of mystery over the Stygian realms. It supplied subjects for two frescoes in the Esquiline house, ing themselves and the bad suffering in various ways. The Greek could not escape the idea of punishment for guilt hereafter. His notion of the state of the dead was, of course, in striking contrast with ours. It was, on the whole, a tame kind of passive existence



Leucothea rescuing Ulysses from the storm.

From a painting by Ludwig M. Schwanthaler.

and for paintings by Nicias and Polygnotus. The latter decorated the walls of the *Lesche* [les'ke] at Delphi with two large works of grand design—the Capture of Troy and the *Nekyia*, or the Descent to Hades. Something is known of these masterpieces from the accounts of them given by the ancient traveler Pausanias. His description is meager, and a few loose statements have puzzled archæologists, who have attempted to reproduce in outline drawings the numerous groups of figures represented in the pictures. Scenes from Hades form the ornamentations on some splendid Apulian vases. These pictorial achievements of the ancients are of interest as indicating their conceptions of the underworld and its inmates. Polygnotus taught ethical lessons by depicting the good enjoy-

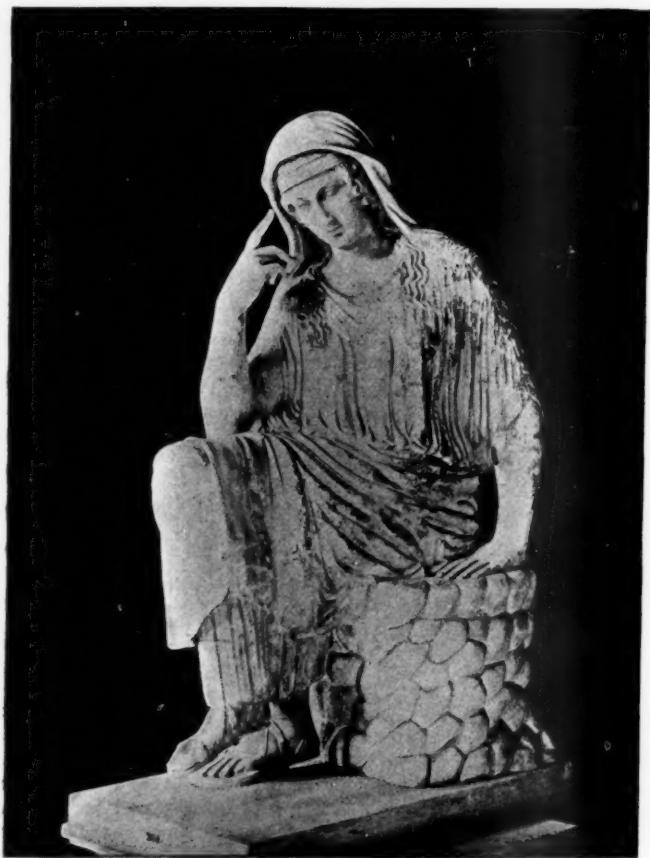
when compared with the life of the dwellers on earth with their ambitions and activities.

After the obsequies of Elpenor, Ulysses and his men feasted on the bread and wine brought by the handmaids of Circe. At nightfall the gracious nymph took the hero apart from his company and listened to his story. Then she predicted much that would happen to him—how he would make the dangerous passage by the sweet-voiced Sirens singing in a flowery field and luring men to death, by the horrible monster Scylla swooping out from her cave and seizing a man with each of her six heads, by the awful maelstrom Charybdis sucking into its depths those who escaped Scylla's ravenous jaws; and she cautioned him against the peril of hurting the cattle of the Sun in the isle of Thrinacia.

Ulysses' escape from the Sirens and Scylla is the subject of a fine mosaic before the Braccio Nuovo in Rome. The lovely creatures whose entrancing song captivated even the sagacious Ulysses are represented in many antique reliefs and vase-paintings as part bird and part human. The conceptions of modern painters and sculptors seem to be

was prevented by his refined instinct for beauty from painting or carving the hideous Scylla. Numerous works by Roman and Etruscan sculptors represented her as less repulsive than Chimaera, the destructive woman-monster of the Odyssey.

Against Ulysses' earnest appeals, the wearied sailors put ashore at Thrinacia, prom-



Penelope.

In the Vatican, Rome.

more in accord with Homer's description of these alluring singers. In the paintings by Lairesse, Ingres, Etty, Maynard, Crane, Frost, Bruckmann, Beaumont, and many others, the Sirens appear as attractive women—voluptuous but heartless—generally three in number, though only two are mentioned in the poem. They sit near the water's edge, beguiling passing mariners. The Greek

is not to touch the herds of the Sun which were kept there. For a long month they were detained on the island by ill winds—till the food, kindly provided by Circe, was gone. Then Ulysses, in deep distress, went to a lonely spot to pray for relief. During his absence, his company killed some of the goodly cattle. At the complaint of the Sun to the immortals, Jupiter declared that he would

smite the offending seamen with his white bolt. The first calm day they launched their ship. Once out on the deep, a violent storm arose and lightning broke their barque to pieces. In the wreck, all were drowned except Ulysses, who lashed the mast and keel together and clung thereon. Soon the wind changed and bore him back to the raging whirlpool Charybdis. Clutching the overhanging branches of a tree, he escaped the dreaded vortex which swept his timbers from under him. After long waiting, the mast and keel rose to the surface again, and Jupiter mercifully spared him the sight of Scylla. Nine days he spent on the deep, and at last drifted to the isle Ogygia, where he was tenderly cared for by Calypso. In this remote paradise the unfortunate wanderer was detained eight long years, the beloved captive of a beautiful goddess.

Homer draws a bright picture of this fragrant island, with its tropical richness and luxuriance, when Hermes brings the unwelcome message that its gracious but passionate mistress must release her helpless prisoner. But a pitiful object is that of the great-hearted Ulysses sitting by the shore and gazing wistfully over the deep, consuming his life away in mourning for his return. The bard lavishes all the wealth of his copious vocabulary on the scenes in which the two appear together,—when the smiling goddess approaches her homesick "lover" and informs him of the will of the gods; when Calypso and Ulysses sit in the lovely grotto, he eating of the dainties provided by her handmaids, and she of ambrosia and nectar; when they go forth early in the morning to the clumps of trees and shrubbery on the coast; also when he departs on his lonely voyage glad to be on his way, but she lamenting the loss of her darling. It is no wonder that Calypso has attracted painters from the time of Nicias and *Ti-mar'e-te* to the present. She was sculptured by D'Epinay. The stately goddess has been portrayed under various circumstances by Romney, Woodford, Haynes, Uwins, Hilton, Henri Lehmann, and others, who have turned to account some of the remarkable pictorial opportunities found in the *Odyssey* and *Télémaque*. Flaxman admirably represented the nymph as a woman of statuesque mold and imperious manner. Preller's illustrations of this idyllic episode are nothing less than an artistic triumph. His imaginative pictures of

Calypso and her delightful island-home give the loveliest glimpses of wooded shores and Arcadian valleys.

In the fifth *Odyssey* an account is given of the storm at sea, the wrecking of Ulysses' raft by Neptune, the appearance of the goddess Leucothea, also the subsequent perils and landing of the hero on the coast of Phæacia—a country that exists only in the domains of fancy and magic. The story is told so realistically, it seems certain that the bard himself must have passed through similar rough experiences during his wanderings on the deep. Different incidents of the narrative were utilized for pictorial purposes by Zeuxis and Eupompus, and have inspired Guerin, Rubens, and Buttura. A number of artists—Heyden, Henning, Howard, Flaxman, Schwanthaler, and others—have represented the moment when the radiant sea-nymph rises from the waves and sits on the beams of the shattered barque.

Ulysses, worn out with toil and hardship, lies down to sleep in a thicket near the beach. Meanwhile Athene comes to the palace of Alcinous, king of the Phæacians, and appears to his daughter in a dream, bidding her go at the dawn to the river and wash the garments of the household. The princess is furnished a wagon and mules to bear the load, and forthwith she and her serving women are clattering along the road. The mules are turned loose to graze upon the blossoming clover, and the blithe maidens vie with one another treading down the soiled clothing in the eddying water. This task done and the clothes spread out to dry upon the clean pebbles, they bathe and sit down on the bank of the stream. Having eaten their lunch, the maidens begin to play, throwing a ball at one another and singing. Nausicaä enters gleefully into the sport—in stature and beauty outshining her comrades even as the stately Diana among her wood-nymphs. Thus the merry girls were whiling away the afternoon till the princess, in casting the ball, threw it past the girl into the water. The piercing scream they uttered suddenly woke Ulysses, who crept forth from the copse, having first broken off a leafy bough to hide his nakedness. The unlooked-for apparition of a nude, weather-beaten man scattered the damsels, but Nausicaä stood firm—her heart being emboldened by Athene—and listened to the smooth words and complimentary phrases of the wasted suppliant.



Stirred by his entreaty, she graciously answered him and directed her affrighted attendants to give him a mantle and doublet. When he had eaten and drunk, the thoughtful Nausicaä pondered how the stranger might share her father's hospitality. Discreetly and modestly fearing to take him with her in the cart, she bade him follow with her handmaids through the fields and to wait outside the city alone near a poplar grove in a meadow. According to her directions, he took his way, at nightfall, to the wondrous capital of Scheria—marveling at the havens and ships, the high walls and places of public assembly, and most of all at the palace with its gorgeous furnishings and its halls gleaming with metallic luster. Amid such barbaric glitter and bewildering magnificence Ulysses was amazed. Near by was the king's demesne—orchards and vineyards always in bloom and bearing fresh fruit, also beds of vegetables and playing fountains. Within the splendid mansion he saw gold and silver statues of youths and hounds. Here the afflicted man was most kindly received and honored by Alcinous and his noble wife Arete, who drew from Ulysses the story of his wanderings. Well pleased with so distinguished a guest, the king promised him a safe convoy to his own land.

Books VI., VII., and VIII. of the *Odyssey* are crowded with picturesque scenes and sculpturesque figures. The events narrated are highly romantic—some of them bordering upon the marvelous. Without specifying all the points of time that have been chosen for artistic representation, we may group the subjects treated most frequently into three classes: those which relate to the coming of Nausicaä to the river, her meeting with Ulysses, and the remaining incidents of his stay among the Phæacians. The first part of the story supplied idyllic themes for paintings by Protogenes, Poynter, Vedder, and Leslie; also for Marshall's statue of the graceful, imperial Nausicaä. The dramatic moment of Ulysses' appearance has yielded materials for an untold number of works by Polygnotus, Salvator Rosa, Rubens, Claude Lorrain, Runcimann, Prieur, Kaulbach, Preller, and other eminent painters. Ulysses has been sculptured and depicted among the Phæacians, with Alcinous, and in his famous gardens. The royal grounds appear in devices on the coins of Corcyra, and in pictures by Danby and Lance. The lovable

princess, with her winsome face and queenly figure, has been portrayed by Guido, Gleyre [gläre], Koch, and Leighton.

The action of the last half of the *Odyssey* occupies only eight days, but they are eventful days, filled with the memorable deeds of Ulysses and his son Telemachus. So many occurrences take place that some of them must be omitted, for lack of space.

Ulysses was borne on a Phæacian ship to his native land and laid on the strand, sleeping sweetly. Waking, everything seemed strange to him—"the long paths and the sheltering havens and the steep rocks and the trees in their bloom." Inquiring of a young herdsman who drew near, he learned that it was a broken, hilly isle called Ithaca. As they talked, the youthful shepherd was transformed into a majestic goddess. Having told him of the dissolute wooers who had lorded it in his palace for years and tried to force Penelope into a distasteful marriage, Athene assured him of her constant aid and bade him first go to his swineherd to await Telemachus' return from his travels in search of tidings of his father. Then by a touch of her wand, she changed him into an old beggar with tattered clothes and a staff, yet possessing something of his former dignity. Thus habited he appeared at the retired dwelling of Eumæus, who welcomed the stranger and gave him shelter for the night. In conversation with the man, Ulysses informed himself as to matters in the palace.

The following day he disclosed himself to Telemachus, who had just arrived from Lacedæmon,—avoiding the wooers lying in wait to murder him. During the affecting interview between father and son, they conferred concerning the best course to rid the house of the abusive suitors. The next morning Ulysses was led by his old servant to the city. When near the palace, they heard the music of the lyre and the voice of the minstrel in the assemblage of the wooers within the halls. Before the doors of the large building lay Ulysses' old hound Argus, which "raised up his head and pricked his ears. . . . Yet even now when he was aware of Odysseus standing by, he wagged his tail and dropped both his ears, but nearer to his master he had not now the strength to draw. But Odysseus looked aside and wiped away a tear. . . . Therewith he passed within the fair-lying house and went straight to the hall, to the company of the

proud wooers. But upon Argus came the fate of black death even in the hour that he beheld Odysseus again in the twentieth year."

The return of Ulysses is represented in a Pompeian wall-painting and in a fresco painted by Martellini in the Pitti Palace. Various incidents described by Homer, such as the landing, and the meetings of Ulysses with Athene and Eumæus, also the recognition scene between father and son, have been

gleam with an unearthly light in token of divine approval. Ulysses then has an interview with Penelope, who anxiously questions him concerning her long-absent husband. While dwelling on her woes she narrates the story of her attempts to put off the suitors till she might finish a robe for Laërtes' shroud, which she wove in the daytime and unraveled at night. After listening to the unhappy queen—a slave to circumstances as was every woman in those times—Ulysses



From a Greek vase.

Scene in Hades.

treated pictorially by Linnell, Enders, Lohde, Castellan, Kaulbach, Doucet [doo-sā], and others. The well-known group of Ulysses as a beggar and his old dog is shown in ancient reliefs and on gems and coins. This touching passage inspired a capital picture by Riviere, and two noble works of sculpture by Macdonald and Spence.

In the palace Ulysses shares in the feast and then goes begging among the haughty wooers. They wonder who he is, and some pity him. He patiently submits to shameful treatment. Much to the delight of the princes, Penelope, glorious in aspect, comes to the hall and receives presents. Dancing and pastimes follow. When the festivities are broken up, Ulysses and his son remove from the walls the shields and spears, which

indulges his faculty for inventing clever fictions. Stirred by his words and her own sad memories, she gives way to tears. Her damsels prepare a couch for him, and his old nurse proceeds to wash his feet. Being revealed to Eurycleia by an old scar, Ulysses warns her not to cry out. Meanwhile Penelope, womanlike, yields to the impulse to confide in him further, and relates a strange dream. She also informs him of the coming trial of the wooers, on the morrow, when she will give herself to the man who can string Ulysses' mighty bow and shoot an arrow through twelve axes. The next day when she brings it forth from the treasure-chamber none of the effeminate gallants can bend it. Ulysses makes his plans known to the loyal neatherd and the swineherd who bar the

doors and the outer gate. The bow is handed to him, against the loud remonstrances of the wooers. They turn color when he easily strings it and sends a shaft through all the axes. Telemachus and the two trusty servants arm themselves and come to his side. Ulysses leaps upon the threshold to prevent the escape of any, and pours forth the long arrows from a full quiver. With a clamor the suitors arose in alarm. Fast flew the destructive missiles, and soon the floor was covered with slain men. The slaughter of the wooers ended, Eurycleia eagerly ran to awake her mistress, who still doubted that her husband had come home and was with difficulty convinced that he was really Ulysses.

The closing scenes of the Odyssey have inspired countless works of art. The events occurring before Ulysses' home-coming suggested Canova's relief of Telemachus' return, Cook's painting of the suitors, the pictures of Penelope at her web by Seddon and Glaize, also those by Primaticcio [pre-ma-teet'cho] and Corneille [kor-näl' or kor-nây'] of Penelope engaged in domestic tasks, surrounded by serving women. The hero and his dignified consort are seen in a Pompeian fresco, reproduced by Fairfax Murray; a picture by Boisfremont [bwa-fra-moñ] shows Ulysses as a beggar in the presence of Penelope and a handmaid. Polygnotus and other painters

of antiquity depicted him killing the suitors—a subject that attracted Palliave, Vereschagin [vā-rā-shā-gheen'], Kaulbach, and Moreau. Some celebrated artists have represented Ulysses when recognized by Eurycleia, and later by his skeptical wife. The bent form of the mourning matron appears in several antique reliefs in the British Museum, the Louvre, and other collections. The marble statue of Penelope in the Vatican is supposed to have been part of a group consisting of Eurycleia washing the feet of Ulysses. She sits apart, weighed down with anxiety, grief being denoted by the expression of her face and by her careless appearance. The statue is assigned by Friedrichs to the Attic school in the fifth century; the group was thought by him to have adorned the pediment of a temple, and to have been imitated in terra cotta reliefs, also in a set of bronze statuettes found at Ithaca. The statues of Penelope by Chantrey, Wyatt, Foley, and Cavelier are highly creditable performances. No less remarkable have been the attempts of painters to limn the features of Ulysses' faithful wife. In the portrait by Zeuxis, she seemed, says Pliny, "the personification of all household virtues." Prinsep, Deutsch, Merson, Bendemann, Cabanel, and others have delineated an ideal Penelope possessing the charms and characteristics of Homer's heroine.

## ECCENTRIC FEATURES OF THE WORLD'S FAIR.

BY JOHN C. EASTMAN.

MIDWAY PLAISANCE is a boulevard probably eight hundred feet wide and nearly a mile long. It is a link of the South Park system of Chicago, connecting Washington Park with Jackson Park, the latter being the site of the Columbian Exposition. Separate from and yet a part of the great Exposition, this boulevard has come to be almost as interesting as the main fair. It is the overflow of the Exposition—the bazaar of all nations. Here red Indian and Bedouin, Jap and German, Irish peasant and Chinese, Javanese and Moor mix indiscriminately and cry their wares. Zone boundaries are obliterated.

On either side the Plaisance is lined with little villages, true reproductions of historic

palaces and castles, cathedrals, theaters of all nations, and streets rebuilt from some of the oldest cities in the world. These villages are peopled by natives of every clime from Labrador to Egypt and back again. The babble of all tongues is heard. Here the visitor will find Bedouins in their native tents, Japanese salesmen in bright little booths, Irish peasants making lace in low cottages under the shadows of a Donegal castle, tree dwellers of Sumatra lounging lazily in their basket homes, and dark-skinned Turks offering their wares under the minarets of a gorgeous palace. This section of the fair needs a name at once striking and comprehensive. Midway Plaisance does not suggest anything. It utterly fails to convey the idea of a babble of all

tongues, of an unclassified aggregation of many races, of the union of antipodes, and the general confusion and turmoil of the place. I frankly admit my inability to fix upon a course beginning at one end with a ruined Irish castle, comprehending everything from a camp of blood-thirsty head-hunters from Sumatra, to a Moorish palace and a German village, and ending with a panorama of the Bernese Alps, a name that shall convey to the visitor any idea of the place. The boulevard is brilliant with the colors of all nations. It is a kaleidoscope of the world, that furnishes a passing panorama of life in every zone.

This is the unofficial section of the fair. It is strictly commercial in its purposes. All the exhibits except the natives are for sale. They are delivered to buyers on the spot, just as a purchase is made in any established mercantile house. No sentiment except that of commercial gain prompted the establishment of this huge kaleidoscope. Early in the history of the Exposition it was found that many countries, impoverished by nature or desolated by war, would not be able to make displays unless given a chance to reap some profit other than that which would naturally come to its inhabitants from a creditable exhibit. Midway Plaisance presented a solution of the problem. It was a part of the Exposition site, and yet not in demand as a location for any of the great buildings. It has been handed over from one end to the other for what might be termed, and not inappropriately, side shows, although they are of a more dignified character than the name would suggest. In a few cases these shows are under the patronage of powerful foreign governments, which accept the risk and annoyance of operating them rather than allow the customs of the country to be made ridiculous by adventurers. But in all cases the Exposition management gets a generous share of the money left by visitors along the boulevard. No additional charge is made for a peep into the kaleidoscope or for a promenade through this section. Visitors will be allowed to walk through the villages, step into the booths, saunter through the palm groves of the Javanese colony, or linger in the Chinese towns without charge. It is only when they go into the theaters or halls where dancing girls and players give hourly performances that extra charge is made.

As an educational factor this section of the fair will not be without value. It gives the visitor a chance to study the manners and customs of strange tribes and races. A stroll down the boulevard will be like a tour of the world in half a day, giving here and there a glimpse of life in strange lands. All of the villages, castles, and temples must be true reproductions of the originals. To meet this requirement native artisans have been imported in every instance to develop the plans furnished by native architects. For the larger houses native material was brought to Chicago. All of the smaller concerns, such as the basket-like structures of the Javanese and the rude tents of the Bedouins, are simply transplanted from their original surroundings to Midway Plaisance.

The German village may be accepted as the best representative of these transplanted sections of the old world. It is conducted on a high plane, being in a measure under the supervision of the Imperial German Commissioner to the Exposition. The plan of establishing the village was originated by Dr. Ulrich Jahn, of Berlin, a friend and pupil of the great Virchow [ver'chow or feer'ko]. The enterprise was brought to the attention of the German government and endorsed by the emperor's representative. This village consists of an imposing castle surrounded by a number of houses with thatched roofs and quaint dormer windows,—representative peasant homes in the different provinces of Germany. The castle is the central feature of the little town. It is of the style of architecture that prevailed in the latter part of the fifteenth century, having turrets and towers in bewildering array. The castle is known as "Wasserburg," or water castle, because it is surrounded by a wide moat. Visitors must pass a lowered drawbridge to gain entrance to it. This castle has been reproduced with remarkable fidelity, even to the little chapel where the robber barons said prayers for their victims. Old works of art, sculptures, carvings, tapestries, and other German antiquities, such as armor from the ninth year of the Christian era down to the renaissance, will be displayed in this collection. Sixty full suits of mail will be brought into the castle. A Hessian town hall with its idyllic wood-carved outer staircase stands near the castle and opposite this is a peasant home of the Black Forest style. Near by is a Westphalian peasant home with steep and



pointed roof. There are also Bavarian houses, and numerous restaurants and gardens where genuine German food and beverages will be served. Two bands have been organized in Germany to give frequent concerts in the village during the day. The members of these bands are all men who have been in the military service as musicians; they will wear the regulation military uniform. One band of forty-eight pieces will be uniformed as a regiment of guards on foot and will be led by Eduard Ruscheweyh, who was royal Prussian musical director and, until 1885, band leader of the Third Grenadier Regiment of the guard and since then director of the Tivoli concerts at Berlin. He began his musical career in 1853 with the orchestra of the royal musical director Bille, then at Liegnitz. The many decorations which adorn his breast were earned by professional excellence and by bravery on the field. He saw hard service at the head of his regimental band during the campaign of 1866 against the Austrians and in 1870-71 in France. The iron cross was conferred upon him for heroic conduct at the storming of Le Bourget.

Architects were employed in Frankfurt to prepare this village and set it up before shipment to Chicago. All of the timbers were joined and when everything was ready they were knocked apart, securely boxed, and forwarded to the Exposition in the custody of a number of skilled workmen. The task of rebuilding the castle and the houses was then a simple one. All parts of the building were numbered and lettered and the work of putting them together occupied but a few weeks. More than 1,200,000 marks\* were expended in preparing this village for the opening of the Exposition. It is perhaps the most interesting of the many little colonies that line the Plaisance.

About three thousand native men, women, and children will come to the Exposition to live in the various foreign villages. The East Indian colony is perhaps the largest of all. Two hundred natives are promised from Java and Sumatra, all of whom will be on the grounds two weeks in advance of the open-

\* A mark is equal to about twenty-four cents of United States money.

ing of the Exposition. The men come in advance to put up the houses and theaters and prepare for the arrival of their wives and children. This colony is about equally divided between workmen, salesmen, and performers for the theaters. One of the most powerful sultans of the island, after long and difficult negotiations, issued a decree allowing his bands and the court performers to come to the fair from Java. He imposed, as one of the conditions, that several native high priests should come with the colony to minister to the spiritual comfort of the visitors in a strangeland. The sultan's company is a distinguished body. It includes wrestlers, athletes, actors, several bands, and others charged with amusing his royal highness in idle moments. One of the bands is composed entirely of gong players, and another includes a number of natives who perform on the simplest instrument known to musicians. This is a long bamboo rod, in which a wooden ball is left free to roll from one end to the other. The instrument is seized in the middle and being shaken violently produces different tones according to the distance of the ball from the end of the rod. The orchestra is said to make better music than might be supposed possible from such rude instruments. The Javanese colony will also include tree dwellers and a number of ferocious head-hunters of Sumatra. The latter have never left their native wilds before.

The projectors of a Moorish palace, in addition to showing many rare works of art and trophies of the Moorish wars, have pledged themselves to display, in a vast pile, one million dollars in gold. This glittering mound is only reached after a circuitous passage through a labyrinth of antechambers and halls, all guarded by armed gendarmes. The pile is arranged over a strong vault, in such a manner that in the event of an organized attempt to overpower the gendarmes and carry away the gold, the pyramid can be precipitated into the vault by simply pressing an electric button. There are other attractions along the Plaisance, perhaps more eccentric than these, but the ones mentioned give a fair insight into what may be expected in this spectacular section of the Exposition.



## THE ORGANIZATION OF LABOR.

BY T. V. POWDERLY.

General Master Workman of the Knights of Labor.

WHEN the republic was young, the labor question was not of sufficient importance to cause those not actually engaged in manual toil to devote any thought to its settlement. The principles by which the founders of the government were actuated were as yet unobscured by self-interest or corporate greed; they were based upon the equality of mankind and commended themselves to the great majority of the residents of the United States. The theory of our government is that all citizens stand equal before the law, economically and socially as well as politically, but it is doubtful if the founders, were they alive to-day, would admit that they really intended that equality should extend beyond the limits of political independence. Had they been sincerely desirous of establishing the economic equality of mankind they never would have inaugurated the new government with the canker of slavery gnawing, not secretly and in silence but actively and openly, at its very heart-strings. In permitting human slavery to live on after the adoption of the Declaration of Independence and the Constitution of the United States, the fathers of the republic gave to that institution an approval which, when we read between the lines, discloses the fact that they did not hold labor in very high esteem or regard it as the equal of capital by any means.

Even with this stigma resting upon labor it strove for equality and was so far successful that up to the breaking out of the Civil War but little friction occurred between the employer and employee in the United States. Hand labor was the chief factor in production and in its operations employer and employee often struggled on, side by side. That condition of affairs gave rise, no doubt, to the impression that "the interests of capital and labor were one." The employer understood the feelings and aspirations of the workmen, for he mingled with them and was not prevented by a false pride or the fear of being ostracised by society from placing himself upon the same level with "his men" in arranging the details of workshop discipline. The work-

man on the other hand took a deep interest in the welfare of his employer and, knowing more of his surroundings and perplexities than he does to-day, was willing to co-operate in making the approaches to prosperity easier of access for the man for whom he worked. In those days the laborer worked for a man who possessed a heart and soul, the laborer stood so close to the employer that he could read his heart and he knew that his soul was not so shriveled and warped by greed that he could not feel for the sufferings, or sympathize with the aspirations, of his employee.

The ending of the Civil War changed the whole face of industry in the United States and from the grave of the dead and buried slavery which had cursed the black workman for centuries there grew up a new form of industrial bondage. Hand labor began to disappear and the machine began to usurp the place of the man. Skill in the workman moves backward to make room for swift-moving belts and wheels, while intricate cogs and gearings take the place of nimble fingers. The friendly relationship which had existed between employer and employee died and was buried in the ruins of the old-time economic system. Corporations of immense proportions took the place of the old-time employer, and as corporations "have no bodies to kick or souls to damn" the workman found himself working under the iron law of wages, with greed for master instead of the individual employer who possessed both heart and soul. Up to the breaking out, and for many years after the close, of the Civil War the trade union was the only form of organization among workingmen and it existed only where skilled workmen were employed.

Only the skilled mechanic belonged to or supported the trade union up to the year 1876. The spirit of the trade union of that day was neither broad nor liberal, for it sought to eliminate from the thoughts of its adherents the hope or expectation of independence. For the most part our skilled workmen were natives of foreign lands, they recognized a necessity for organization in the United States

among workingmen, but established it on lines similar to those on which the European trade union grew to such proportions and on which they were so successful. The economic condition of the workingman occupied none of the time of the trade unionist beyond the few moments he gave to the effort to increase his wages. Two things alone gave him any concern as a union man,—increased wages and shorter hours. So far as his actions in the union were concerned the trade unionist appeared to regard himself as a hired man for life and he was united with other men not to exchange dependence for independence, but merely to demand better conditions from a master. The thought of ever becoming his own master did not appear to enter the head of the trade unionist of that day and it is doubtful if many of those of the present day realize that they should co-operate with others in improving the conditions which surround the great bulk of the laborers of the United States. It has been said that when a trade unionist becomes an employer he turns out to be as overbearing and tyrannical, if not more so, than the employer who never labored with his hands and there is much truth in that statement. When the trade unionist leaves his trade to pick up another occupation he is cut off from fellowship with his former associates in the union. If a trade unionist becomes an employer on a small scale the union demands as much from him in the way of terms and wages as if he were wealthy and well-established in business. This is why the trade union has been called "cold-blooded and selfish."

This very trait in the trade unionist betrays the origin of the association for it was born away back among the centuries when men were slaves to their employers and existed without a hope of becoming politically, or economically, the equals of those for whom they worked. Although for many years a trade unionist I have no hesitation in asserting that the taint of its origin still clings to that institution and that its chief aim to-day is to increase wages and shorten the working hours of its members. It was because the trade union was not concerned in the welfare of any one outside of its own membership that I left it years ago and took up membership in an association having broader conception of the duty which the workman owes to his fellow-man and the state. There are many progressive men in the trade unions of the

present day and they must ultimately realize that an organization moving on strictly trade lines can never elevate its members above the horizon of craft regulation or dispute.

The extent to which the labor of the United States is organized must not be judged by comparing the number of those affiliated with the trade unions which exist in this country. Labor is organized in many different associations which are in no way bound to the trade union. That a bond of sympathy exists between all of them is true, but the greater part of the industrialists of the nation look beyond the trade union for relief from the system which makes it impossible for the trade unionist permanently to improve his condition by increasing his wages or shortening his hours of labor. In the United States the workman pays one third more of his earnings for rent than the workman of Europe, but the causes which produce this result are never inquired into by the trade union. If wages are increased ten per cent an increase in rent inevitably follows. The price of provisions goes up soon after the trade union succeeds in raising the wages of its members. Freight rates advance, coal goes up, meat, flour, rents, and every article which enters into use in the home, command a higher price than before.

When the workman looks at the totals at the end of the year he finds that the cost of living has kept even pace, if it has not exceeded, the increase in his earnings.

That competition which was "the life of trade" some years ago exists only among workingmen to-day. We import no manufacturers or employers and those who transact business here are pooling their issues and wealth in trust and combine in order to prevent competition among the employers of labor. Workmen are being imported on every ship, they are obliged by their necessities to work for the smallest wages and must live on the cheapest fare. Invention is throwing men out of shop and factory and is itself monopolized by the individuals instead of being utilized for the benefit of the many. Competition among employers has been practically smothered but it is keener than ever before among the employees. As a result we have cheaper workmen than formerly. Statistics go to prove that the rate of wages in the skilled occupations has increased and that fact is pointed to as an evidence of our prosperity

but the other side, the expense account, of the workman is not alluded to.

The interests of labor and capital are in no way identical under our present system of commercialism. The employer is in business to make money and to do that he will reduce wages, water stocks, evade the payment of taxes, violate contracts, and perjure himself where dollars are in sight. That applies to the majority of those doing business in the United States and is due to the heartless, conscienceless commercialism of the age. So long as it is to the interest of one man to increase his wealth on an investment of honest money and so long as he will increase the stock of his concern double and treble, basing the increase of stock on fictitious values commonly known as water, so long as it is to his pecuniary interest to get as many strokes as possible of the hammer out of the workman for the lowest compensation, and so long as it is to the interest of the workman to get as high a rate of wages for the shortest number of hours, it is hypocritical to assert that the interests of labor and capital are identical. They are identical in but one way,—they are both striving to make the most money possible on an investment of dollars and muscle. The trade unions cannot solve the industrial problem and it never will be solved until the public conscience is stirred to such depths as to cause the great mass of the people who toil with hand and brain, who labor for bread, and who sympathize with those who labor for bread, to realize that the labor question is in reality a misnomer.

What we call the labor question is, when properly understood, the national question; and the minister of God, the doctor of laws and medicine, the scholar, and statesman are as much concerned in its solution as the man who sweats that he may eat bread. Commercialism would level all things in its march toward greater reward, its pathway is strewn with wrecks of men who were in comfortable circumstances not long ago. Arrayed with the laboring man—in his poverty—are hundreds of thousands of men who were driven from business through combination and syndicate. The houses of Stewart and others have crushed hundreds of merchants to the dust. Buyers leave adjoining cities and towns to visit the palaces of commerce only to pay as dearly for what they buy as if they purchased from the home merchant. They incidentally give a premium to the railroads

over which they travel to and from the great hives of trade. More men know want than ever before. In olden times simplicity ruled the daily life of the workman, merchant, and even the well-to-do man of leisure. What was at that time a luxury to the middle man is to-day a necessity for the laboring man. Machinery has thrown a thousand new articles at the feet of the consumer and the eye rests on these things, temptingly displayed, in the store windows everywhere. The limited mail and lightning express trains have succeeded in working a complete transformation in our small cities and towns. Years ago it was quite easy for the resident of New York to distinguish the visitor from the country town but we wear a cosmopolitan garb in the latter part of the century of wonders and this change is due to the fact that time and space have been annihilated by the telegraph, telephone, electric car, and the vestibuled limited railroad train.

As a nation we have made rapid progress and stand at the head of the column. As a nation we are richer than any other, but all the people have not shared equally in the gain. The wonderful storerooms of Stewart and others as well-known, are not the only ones of the kind in the United States, they are simply pre-eminent and wherever they exist, or have influence, the small merchants have been driven from business. Consolidation of great enterprises has had the effect of driving weaker rivals out of business and that is why I say that more men know want than heretofore. They do not want for bread, they do not hunger, but their tastes and desires are not gratified as they would be if competition existed among merchants, manufacturers, and railroads the same as it does between producers. The thousands who have been driven from business find themselves in want with more of an income than the average workingman can command, for the reason that their mode of living, while in the enjoyment of prosperity, caused them to contract more expensive habits than the workingman ever knew. These men are inquiring into the causes of their change from prosperity to reduced circumstances and we find many of them working as active members of the labor organizations of the present day.

The chief demand of the trade union is for increased wages, the next aim is toward a shorter working day. Machinery, every day becoming more perfect, has rendered it easy

for the average day laborer to learn how to manage a machine in a very short time. The ease with which this can be done makes it next to impossible for the trade unionist to hold his own, as a tradesman, for the tide of immigration which flows constantly inward drives the laborers from the street and ditch into the shop and factory where they crowd the mechanic out of his situation and independence. No law that can be framed by the trade union can check this tendency of the laborers to crowd forward to the machines, for they are driven by necessity and must go forward or drop from the ranks of honest toil and become tramps. Necessity is keener edged than the sword, hunger more powerful than the heaviest artillery and pushed to its extreme limit shatters faith in religion, love for fellow-man, and eventually every refined, ennobling instinct of manhood. Want destroys spirituality and forces humanity to a condition where the brute takes the place of the man. Want is the fulcrum on which commercialism places its lever and in pressing down it crushes more than it uplifts. Commercialism begets want, want begets brutality, and as a natural sequence commercialism is a legitimate parent of crime.

The various trade unions of the United States number about three hundred thousand members. The greater part of these unions pay a weekly benefit in case of sickness or accident and quite a few of them have insurance departments. Experience has demonstrated that the insurance feature does not succeed in a labor organization for the reason that associations especially adapted to that work are very numerous and attract the members of labor organizations. Many years ago the progressive members of the trade unions became convinced that the organization which expended all its time and energy in attempting to elevate the condition of the workingman by raising his wages and shortening his hours of labor must ultimately fail. They determined to organize a different kind of an industrial society and instituted the Knights of Labor. That was in 1869, and since that time the thinking world has been attracted toward the labor question as it never was before. From 1869 to 1877 but little was done in the way of extending the organization for it was not permissible even to mention the name of the association. The railroad strikes of that year turned the attention of workingmen toward labor organiza-

tion again and the active workers in the Knights of Labor made preparations to spread the organization. In 1881 the name of the order was made public and with the publication of its principles it at once attracted the notice of the most intelligent among the workers.

Through the efforts of the trade union no member would ever become an employer or his own master. The aim of the Knights of Labor—properly understood—is to make each man his own employer. Co-operation is the basic stone of the organization. The fostering of co-operative establishments, productive and distributive, took up a great deal of the time and money of the organization of the Knights of Labor from 1883 to 1889. Many disappointments were experienced, and to-day the settled conviction among the members is that distributive co-operation can never be successful so long as the avenues of transportation—the railroads—are in the hands of private individuals or corporations. One illustration will suffice:

A Local Assembly of the Knights of Labor purchased a tract of coal land, sunk a shaft, erected machinery, and made preparations to engage in mining on the co-operative plan. The mine lay a mile from the main line of a great railroad; the directors of the railroad held stock in a mining company doing business a short distance from the Knights of Labor mine; they determined to drive the Knights out of the mining business. A track of a mile in length was a necessity, but one year of valuable time was frittered away in getting the track laid. When it was laid, the company would forget to place cars at the disposal of the co-operative mine, would side-track loaded cars, and in a dozen ways make it unpleasant and unprofitable to compete with the mine owned by the stockholders of the railroad company. The upshot was that the Knights were obliged to sell the plant and go out of business.

In many other ways the workingmen endeavored to embark in co-operative enterprises, productive and distributive, but were unsuccessful for two reasons: a lack of business training and the opposition of great combinations of capital which crushed every effort at competition.

Prison contract labor is objected to by workingmen, not that they would have the convict remain in idleness but by reason of the unfair advantage which the contractor ob-



tains over rivals and over honest labor. The labor of the convict is sold for less money than the workman, doing a like grade of work on the outside, receives. The articles manufactured in prison can be sold for less money and in many cases this system is ruinous to honest labor. If the labor of the convict is sold for the same price as that paid to honest labor, of like grade, there will be no fault found, but under our present plan of managing convicts the convicted thief and burglar are made the instruments of oppression in the hands of grasping contractors. A parent commits a crime, he is sentenced to a long term in the penitentiary, his wife must leave the home in order to work out by the day, her children are committed to the care of the street, they are under no restraint and in nine cases out of ten the boys become thieves and the girls prostitutes. If our system is changed so that a fair price will be paid for the labor of the convict and all over and above what will be required to maintain him in prison and recompense the state, turned over to his family, or set aside for him when liberated in case he has no family, there will be fewer criminals and more reformed convicts than at present. Our present convict system is a purely commercial one and is not calculated to work a reform either in or out of prison.

The price paid for the labor of women is lower, in many instances by half, than that paid to men; the treatment of women while at work is not so good as that accorded to men and in many ways they are made to feel that they are inferior beings. With machinery so delicately arranged that the fingers of woman can manage it with ease the necessity for an exercise of strength is every day disappearing. The cheapest and most skillful labor is sought for and as a matter of course woman labor is being performed in hundreds of places to which it was a stranger until very recently. The Knights of Labor demanded "equal pay for equal work" until the convention of 1890, and at that session they changed the demand to read, "equal rights for both sexes." Many interpreted that to mean a demand for the ballot, or woman suffrage; it not only contemplates the right to vote, but all other rights now enjoyed by men.

The preamble of the Knights of Labor is too well known to require further comment, the parts to which I have alluded are least

understood. The membership is two hundred and fifty thousand. The motto of the Knights of Labor, "That is the most perfect government in which an injury to one is the concern of all," has a meaning which extends far beyond the limits of that organization. The Order of Knights of Labor is made up of men from every walk in life except those who are lawyers, bankers, liquor makers or sellers, gamblers, and professional politicians. It is unfortunately true that occasionally the professional politician succeeds in gaining admission, but he does so while disguised as an honest man, and as soon as the mask falls from his face he either retires in disgrace from the organization or breaks up the Assembly to which he gained admission. If a trade union struck work all classes suffered in one way or another, but they were not consulted as to the probable effect of the strike on their condition. In organizing the Knights of Labor it was decided that inasmuch as it was considered that "an injury to one is the concern of all," it would be no more than right to admit all who followed useful callings in life so that the concern of one would not injure all through a failure on the part of those beyond that particular calling to take cognizance of the matter in dispute. Laborers, mechanics, miners, farmers, students, doctors, scientists, and clergymen are all members of the Knights of Labor where they believe in lending a part of their effort to the good of humanity.

The organization is of American birth and was established to elevate the condition of the industrialist on American lines. The theory of our government presupposes that the child of the poorest parents may one day become president of the United States, and the true Knight of Labor seeks to remove the artificial barriers which ignorance and greed have erected in the pathway of the workman.

The Farmers' Alliance with a membership of about fifteen hundred thousand in the various branches, works upon a platform which is almost identical with that of the Knights of Labor. In the declaration in favor of land taxation the Farmers' Alliance is not so radical as the Knights of Labor, but as the members of the various industrial organizations mingle with each other they will understand that their interests are identical. The farmer will find a readier market for his produce if the workmen of the cities and



towns are well paid for their labor, but to make the connection between the urban and agricultural workmen perfect the rail and telegraph lines must be owned by, and operated in the interest of, all the people.

The various organizations of railroad men, conductors, engineers, firemen, trainmen, and switchmen have a combined membership of over two hundred thousand members and are every day growing stronger. The aim of

the organization of the rail is to maintain high wages, protect the members in sickness and accident, bury the dead, and enforce the adoption of the best safeguards for the preservation of life and limb.

The era of strikes is passing away and the organized workingman is inquiring into the causes of industrial depression for the purpose of applying the remedy to the root of the evil of which he complains.

### GREEK IN THE ENGLISH OF MODERN SCIENCE.\*

BY PROFESSOR F. A. MARCH.

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IN the early age of our language, the Anglo-Saxon, the formation of new words from native roots went on freely, as in German, and in Greek. In the account of our Lord's view of the Sabbath in Matthew, xii., 1-13, the Sabbath is called *rest-daeg* (rest-day), the disciples *leorning-cnihtas* (learning-knights), the Pharisees *sunder-halgan* (sundered-holy), mercy *mild-heortnesse* (mild-heartedness). But when the ravages of the Danes broke the Anglo-Saxon kingdom into tribes, and their language fell into dialects, the power of free formation was lost. Modern English borrows words instead of coining them. Lists were given in the March number of THE CHAUTAUQUAN of the few borrowed Greek words in the general language of religion and literature. The Greek words borrowed for the language of science and philosophy were also few comparatively, until the great awakening of research and invention in the middle of the eighteenth century. Even then Latin was the language drawn upon at first, and when Greek words were adopted they were given a Latin form. Gradually, however, Greek has grown in favor, and in the latter half of the nineteenth century it has been the main source of new technical terms.

The language of electricians is a good illustration. There was no name for what we call *electricity* among the ancients. Plato mentions that amber rubbed will attract light bodies. It was in the year 1600 that the renowned scientist Gilbert, the contemporary of Lord Bacon, published a book concerning

the magnet. It is in Latin, and in it occurs for the first time the word *electric*, Latin *electricus*, applied to objects which when excited by friction and the like, attract light bodies. Gilbert framed it upon the Greek *ēlek'tron*, in its Latinized form *electrum*, the name of amber. *Electrum* is used as an English word for amber as far back as 1398. Wyclif has *electre*, Ezek. i., 4 (1382), A.-Sax. *elehtre*. *Electric* means *amber-like*, at first only as to its attractive power. The absence of repulsive power was thought to distinguish it from magnetism. Forty years afterwards *electric* and *electricity* both appeared for the first time in English, in Sir Thomas Brown's *Pseudodoxia Epidemica*, i. e., *Vulgar Errors*. *Electrical* had appeared five years earlier (N. Carpenter, 1635). These were rare and learned terms for a hundred years. *Electral* occurs in 1673. Sir Isaac Newton has *electric*, 1675, and they occur occasionally in papers in the Philosophical Transactions. In Franklin's time (1747) they burst into familiar use, and derivatives appear: *electrify*, *electrifier*, *electrification*, *electrize*, *electrizable*, *electrization*, *electrizing*, *electrician*, *electrically*. These are all Latin forms, though the verb ending *ize* is from Greek. The Greek combining form is *electro*. That is found in one familiar word of the Franklin age: *electrom'eter* (*Gentlemen's Magazine*, 1749), and in *electroph'orus*, *electrophore*, names of an instrument invented by Volta for generating electricity (1778). There are no other words in *electro* till we pass 1800, and not many till we reach the time of Faraday, almost a round century from Franklin. Faraday gives us *electrode* (from Gk. *hodos*, a way),

\*Special Course for C. L. S. C. Graduates.

the pole of a galvanic battery; *electrolyte* (from Gk. *lutos*, loosed), a body that can be decomposed by galvanic action; *electrolytical*; *electrolyze*; *electro-motor*; *electro-ionic* (from Gk. *tonos*, tension); and there is an ever-widening and deepening flood of *electros*: *electro-biology*, *electrodynamic*, *electrograph*, *electrography*, *electro-magnet*, -magnetic, etc.; *electro-motive*, -motion; *electronome*; *electrophathy*; *electroplate*; *electro-psychology*; *electroscope*; *electrostatics*; *electrotype*; and a hundred more. Thus much has been gathered from the Historical Dictionary, very likely by this time there are a hundred more *electros*. The section of the Dictionary containing them was published in 1891, and since then how many new facts have been discovered, how many new applications and contrivances invented for this wonderful power!

This example was chosen because everyone is so much interested in electricity, and so many persons read about it, and notice the new words which appear so frequently in connection with it. There is one use for which the word has not yet been fixed, the execution of the sentence of death. The electricians themselves revolt from the whole affair. They cannot bear to have their wonder-working power put to such a use. It excites serious and devout thought to observe that the figurative uses of the word *electric* and its associates, all relate to its benevolent energy, the flash and thrill like that of love or courage, and it is no wonder that its votaries protest against putting it in the hangman's place. But the laity and the newspaper men want their word. They have the combining forms *electrici* and *electro*. A Latin word for *execute*, to go with *electrici*, or a Greek word to go with *electro* is wanted. The Latin word *execute* makes *electrici-execute*, which would contract into *electricute*. The Greek word *than-* which is made familiar by Bryant's *Thanatopsis*, a Vision of Death, would give *electro-thany*, death by electricity, pronounced *electrothany*.

There are a large number of Greek words like *electro*, which are so much used in science that they have become established combining forms, with which compounds are freely made in English scientific speech, roots in English transplanted from Greek, but living roots or stems, as productive as they ever were in Greece. To show how such words are used and also to exhibit mod-

ern English scientific language used descriptively a specimen is given from the article on *acro-* in the Standard Dictionary:

**acro-**. Derived from Gk. *akros*, topmost: a combining form denoting situation, motion, growth, or the like, at the top.—*Ac-ro'bry-a*, *n. pl. Bot.* The class of plants that grow at the apex only, as the higher cryptogams; the acrogens.—*ac-ro'bry-ous*, *a.*—*ac-ro-carp*, *n. Bot.* An acrocarpous plant.—*ac''ro-car'pous*, *a. Bot.* Having the fructification terminal.

Two leading classes have to be distinguished—the *acrocarpous* and *pleurocarpous* Mosses. In the former the growth of the stalk concludes with the formation of a sporogonium [moss-fruit].

GOEBEL in *Encyc. Brit.* 9th ed., vol. xvii, p. 71.

—*ac''ro-ce-phal'ic*, *ac''ro-se-fal'ic*, *C.<sup>1</sup> M. W.* (-*sef'*, *C.<sup>2</sup>*), *a. Terat.* Affected with or characterized by acrocephaly.—*ac''ro-ceph'a-lous*, *ac''ro-ceph'a-ly*, *n. 1. Terat.* Excessive height of skull in front. 2. *Ethnol.* A form of skull in which the vertical axis is more or less elongated. *ac''ro-ce-pha'li-a*.—*Ac''ro-cer'i-dæ*, *n. pl. Entom.* A family of small tetrachætos flies with swollen abdomen. *Ac-roc'e-ra*, *n. (t. g.)*—*Ac''ro-crin'i-dæ*, *n. pl. Echin.* A Subcarboniferous family of camerate crinoids with an urn-shaped calyx and two basal plates. *Ac''ro-cri'nus*, *n. (t. g.)*—*ac''ro-dac'ty-lum*, *n. [-IA, pl.] Ornith.* [Rare.] The upper surface of a digit.—*ac-ro-dont*. I. *a.* Having teeth surmounting ridges of the jaw. II. *n.* A reptile with acrodont dentition.—*ac-ro-gen*, *n. Bot.* A plant that grows at the apex only, as ferns, horsetails, mosses, etc.—*ac''ro-gen'ic*, *ac-rog'e-nous*, *a.*—*ac''ro-gonid'i-um*, *n. [-NID'I-A, pl.] Bot.* A gonidium produced at the summit of a fruiting branch.—*a-crog'y-nous*, *a. Bot.* Having the archegonia formed near the apical cell or from it, as certain *Jungermanniaceæ*.—*ac''ro-lith*, *n.* A statue with stone extremities, the trunk being usually of wood: found in early Greek art.—*ac''ro-lith'ic*, *ac-rol'i-than*, *a.*—*ac''ro-meg'a-ly*, *n. Pathol.* A hypertrophy of the extremities and face. BILLINGS. *Med. Dict.* *ac''ro-me-ga'li-a*.—*Ac''ro-my-o'di*, *n. pl. Ornith.* A group of passerine birds whose syringeal muscles connect with the upper half-rings of the bronchial apparatus, comprising most of the singing birds.—*ac''ro-my-o'di-an*, *a. & n.*—*ac''ro-my-o'd'ic*, *ac''ro-my'o-dous*, *a.*—*ac-rop'e-tal*, *a. Bot.* Developing from the base upward toward the apex, or from the center outward, as certain forms of inflorescence; centrifugal; basifugal.—*ac-rop'e-tally*, *adv.*—*Ac''roph-thal'ma*, *n. pl. Conch.* A group of gastropods with the eyes at the ends

of the tentacles, as the operculate land-snails. —ac'roph-thal'mous, *a.* —ac'ro-po'di-um, *n.* [-DI-A, *pl.*] 1. *Art.* An elevated pedestal for a statue. 2. [Rare.] *Zool.* The whole upper surface of the foot. —ac'ro-sar'cum, *n.* [-CA, *pl.*] *Bot.* A berry developed from an ovary with an adnate calyx, as a currant or cranberry. —ac'ro-scop'ic, *a.* *Bot.* Looking toward the summit. —ac'ro-spire, *vt.* To begin to grow; sprout, as seed, germinate. —ac'ro-spire, *n.* The first sprout from germinating or malted grain; the first leaf above ground, forming the elongated plumule of the grain. —ac'ro-spi'ra, —ac'ro-spore, *n.* *Bot.* A spore borne at the end of an erect branch of the mycelium, or at the apex of a mother-cell, in certain fungi. —ac-ros'po-rous, *a.* —ac'ro-sto'li-um, *n.* [-LI-A, *pl.*] *Gr. Antig.* A sculptured ornament that crowned the prows of ancient galleys: often taken as a trophy of naval victory. See *ROSTRUM*. —ac'ro-tar'si-um, *n.* [-SI-A, *pl.*] The instep, especially of birds. —ac'ro-tar'si-al, *a.* —ac'ro-thym'i-on, *n.* [-I-A, *pl.*] *Pathol.* A wart small at the base but broad at the top: called *thymus* from having the color of thyme; a "moist wart." —ac'ro-thym'i-um. —ac-rot'ic, *a.* Relating to or affecting the surface; as, an *acrotic* eruption.

There are more than 100,000 names of genera in zoölogy, 300,000 names of species; in botany 150,000 names of species. The majority of these are from the Greek. Similar names are also found in medical science, in chemistry, mechanics, in all the arts and sciences. The number of such words is immense. The specimen given will show also that the adjectives, adverbs, verbs, used in defining and describing in these sciences are of the same formation. When the Actinidæ are defined as "hexactinian actinarians without acotia and with a weak sphincter," it is all Greek to most of us. This scientific language is in substance common to scientists of all nations. Some of its words were made by Linnæus, some by Lamarck or Cuvier, some by Werner, some by Darwin or Franklin or Gray.

It is strikingly different from common speech, which grows; it is deliberately made according to general rules understood by the makers—rules which are themselves deliberately made by scientific associations. It is more peculiar still in being primarily a written, rather than a spoken language. The rules of formation are for written words. Its elements are taken from Greek dictionaries, and are familiar and definite only to the eye;

often they have never been pronounced aloud by the scientists who use them. They do not think, or care, perhaps, how the word shall be pronounced. The written word is the word.

Dr. Murray, the editor of the *Historical Dictionary of English*, gives an amusing account of his pursuit of knowledge under difficulties, trying to find out the pronunciation for the dictionary. He writes to the inventors of the words, asking them how they intended them to be pronounced. They answer that they did not think of that, they leave it to him. He attends meetings of the scientists, and hears a half dozen pronunciations of the same word the same evening from half a dozen scientists. The dictionary pronunciation is to a large extent artificial, made by students of language who apply to the new words the common rules for Latin pronunciation according to the English method. But the scientists pronounce neither Latin nor English by those rules; what are called the Continental vowel sounds are used: *ac'ro*, not *ā'cro*, *cephal'ia*, not *cephā'lia*. The accentuation also differs from native English. The English, like other Germanic languages, puts the accents where they will bring out the meaning, on the root syllables, or an important prefix. But the Greek and Latin accent is metrical, determined by the length of the syllables. If the last syllable but one is short, the accent in Latin falls on the syllable before it. The Englishman would naturally say *elec'tro-me'ter*, the same as *elec'tro-mo'tor* or *elec'tro-magnet*; but because the *e* in Latin *metrum*, Gk. *metron*, is short, the accent goes back, and they say *electrom'e'ter*. So from *acro* and *petal* comes *acrop'etal*. This rule of accent is continually transforming compounds, so as to be beyond easy recognition.

The freedom of composition has been mentioned. Examination of the specimens given will suggest that the whole Greek language is open to use in making the compounds; and that is the fact; science takes all Greek words as its proper materials. The suggestion that *electricite* might be compounded of *electric* and *execute* reminds one of the abundant use in science of the incorporative, or—let us have Greek—polysynthetic formation, which philologists usually set forth as a peculiarity of the languages of the aborigines of America. These languages designate objects by mentioning several of their qualities, and they weave the names of the qualities into

one word by selecting a syllable or so from each. The chemists are the greatest masters of this art, the greatest polysyntheticists. In *chloroform*, the *chlor* stands for trichlorid and *form* for formyl; *acetal* is for *acetic* and *alcohol*. The mathematicians have sometimes carried the polysynthesis to the selection of single letters. Sir W. R. Hamilton does this in his quaternions: *cis* means cosine imaginary ante-sign. Mr. A. J. Ellis, also, has constructed a set of polysynthetic terms as good as any words in Algonkin or Choctaw for his mathematical method.

This scientific language is in some sense modern English. The words of it are given in English dictionaries, more or fewer of them according to the size of the dictionary; and we meet them in the magazines and newspapers, as well as in the text-books of our schools and colleges. Greek reigns in this province of speech, and as a large number of these words have become familiar, a certain number of Greek roots have also become familiar, since they are often used in the words. A collection of these roots is made in Skeat's Etymological Dictionary, and in Fowler's English Grammar. A brief selection from them is found in other grammars. Reed and Kellogg have the following: *arch* in Gk. *archein*, to be first, and Gr. *arche*, beginning, chief rule; found in *mon-arch*, *patri-arch*, *monarchy*, *arch-duke*, *-deacon*, *-angel*, etc.; *Cycl* in Gr. *kuklos*, circle; found in *cyclic*, *cyclo-pedia*, *cyclone*, *cyclops*, etc. *Pan* in Gk. *pan*, *pantos*, all, whole; found in *pantheism*, *panacea*, *panorama*, *pantomime*, etc. *Petr* in Gk. *petra*, rock; found in *salt-peter*, *petrify*, *petrification*, *petroleum*, etc. *Phon* in Gk. *phone*, sound; found in *phonic*, *phonograph*, *phonetic*, *euphony*, *symphony*, etc. *Physi* in Gk. *phusis*, nature; found in *physical*, *physician*, *physics*, *metaphysics*, etc. *Scop* in Gk. *scopos*, a watcher, a spy; found in *telescope*, *microscope*, *stereoscope*, *episcopos*, whence *episcopal*, *bishop*, etc. It will be seen that *electro*, *acro*, are the same sort of roots, and there are hundreds of others.

There are also prefixes and suffixes from the Greek, which have become living prefixes and suffixes in modern English in the same way, that is, by occurring often in words adopted from Greek. Such are the prefixes, *amphi-*, on both sides (*amphibious*, living in both regions); *an-* or *a-*, not (*atheist*); *anti-*, against (*anti-slavery*); *apo-* or *ap-*, from (*apostle*, *apostate*); *cata-* or *cat-*, down (*cataract*);

*di-* or *dis-*, twice, two (*digraph*); *dia-*, *di-*, through (*diameter*); *dys-*, bad, ill (*dyspeptic*); *ec-*, from, out of (*ecstasy*, standing out of one's self); *en-*, in, on; *epi-*, upon, to (*epigram*, *epistle*); *eu* or *ev*, well (*evangel*, good angel); *hemi-*, half (*hemisphere*); *hyper-*, over (*hypercritical*); *hypo-*, under (*hypocrite*, *hypodermic*); *meta*, beyond, after, change (*meta-morphosis*); *mono-*, one, alone (*monosyllable*); *para-*, beside (*parasite*); *peri-*, around (*perimeter*); *poly-*, many (*polygon*); *pro-*, before (*prologue*); *syn-*, with (*sympathy*, *synchronous*).

The suffixes: *-ac*, pertaining to (*cardiac*, pertaining to the heart); *-et*, one who (*poet*, one who makes); *-ic*, *-ical*, pertaining to, made of; *-ics*, science of (*physics*, science of nature); *-ize*, to make, to give (*poetize*); *-ism*, doctrine, state of being (*atheism*); *-ist*, one who (*atheist*); *-y*, state of being (*monarchy*). Such are the living elements in modern English which it owes to Greek. Studying these is studying Greek. There are many niceties connected with inflection and composition. A scientist who does not know Greek enough to read his Greek Testament, must always flounder about in these myriads of technicalities like a fresh-water fish in the ocean.

These scientific words do not all remain mere or pure technicalities. They pass into literature. *Electric* is as good in poetry as in science, and seems quite as much at home in literature as physics. Yet the first figurative use of it is of yesterday; it is in Coleridge:

"The electric flash that from the melting eye  
Darts the fond question or the soft reply."

Then Burke says, "Those heights of courage which electrify an army and ensure victory." Perhaps there are no literary uses of *electro*. Here is one by the Autocrat of the Breakfast Table which comes pretty near it: "Men of letters will not disturb the popular fallacy respecting this or that electro-gilded celebrity." And so with other technical terms.

This great world of scientific words may be regarded as an empire of the intellect, bounding the kingdom of true English on the right, as the world of slang bounds it on the left. The central kingdom is enriched by constant accessions from both its neighbors. The modern English language doubles the number of its words as often as the race doubles the number of its men, and the major part of the new words are so fresh from the Greek lexicon, that we must resort to that lexicon to fully understand them.



## SUNDAY READINGS.

SELECTED BY BISHOP VINCENT.

[April 2.]

ST. LUKE, I., 48. All generations shall call me blessed.

I AM reminded by the day—feast as it is of the Annunciation—of a morning many years ago, when I stood by the fount where Mary met the Angel of God. I had come down from the hills of Galilee into the valley of Nazareth, and felt in descending, that the place was like the character it enshrined. For, while the hill-tops overlooked a wide country stretching from Carmel to Gilboa, with the plain of Esdraelon between, where mighty deeds had been done in Israel's name, this little valley had no legend save one of maiden lowliness. Never before Mary's meeting the angel in the twilight by this spring had Nazareth been named in history. It was enclosed, hidden, a sweet privacy of rural lives. Yet here, rather than in Tiberias, or Jericho, or Jerusalem, God found a mother for the Messiah—a village girl whose modesty took the announcement of His choice just as this glen received heaven's sunshine, without a thought of merit. No pride had she, nor ambition nor vain imagining of what splendor might be hers when her son should come to David's throne. It was the Lord she magnified; her spirit rejoiced in God her Savior; for He had scattered the proud in the imagination of their hearts; He had put down the mighty from their seats, and exalted them of low degree. Henceforth, and through her, lowliness was to be above all height; the valley nearer heaven than the peak. She would live in her son; she would be known only as His mother; His renown would be her glory, and other she wished not. Better than fame of wealth, of power, of rank, or even wisdom, the generations lifted up forever by His government should call her "blessed." To bless was her one desire, and blessedness would be her supreme reward.

The prophecy has been fulfilled and its title bestowed. Poetry sings it; Music sets it to every key of sentiment; Painting has wrought miracles to portray its meaning; ten thousand temples built of the rocks of mountains show its mountain-like everlastingness; the

earth speaks flowers in praise of it—lady's slippers, lady's gloves, lady's ribbons, and "lady's smocks, all silver white"; Maria's fern and maiden hair, and "winking Mary buds, that ope their golden eyes," and lilies of Annunciation—as if all lands were one valley of Nazareth that had felt the Virgin's feet and hands, the glad recognition of her eye, the trust of her reclining head.

And this Nazarene girl, thus chosen by divine Reason, which is not arbitrary and never errs, to be the mother of the perfect man, must have had traits worthy of transmission into His nature, and of fostering that nature to manly growth. He reproduces her character while transcending it. With any other mother He would not have been the Christ. God's Son, He is also hers. As He is the pattern of men, she must be of women—most womanly when, like her, they desire chiefly to bless and be call blessed.

To this office men, by a religious instinct deeper than their intentions, have consecrated woman. Her privacy is a sacredness not to be profaned by common word or look—a Galilean dale with its one pure well of purest life shut in from the world; and masculine virtues are as the hills round about it, making home a stronghold that she may make it a sanctuary. Men expect, and rightly expect, women to be better than themselves. The scars which on their souls might be marks of heroism, would utterly deface her beauty. The vice they have to rub against and perhaps be defiled with every day, must not come into her presence; or, should they take some of its clinging defilement there, they trust that, as the good Angel of Home, she will stand aloof from it, frown it into shame, and so guard herself and them from the curse of their sacrilege. No man ever loved his wife more for a partnership in his vices or easy compliance towards them. He thinks that unless she is better than himself, she is worse, having fallen from a greater height, and shattered a more precious image. He has looked to her for a strength that would lift him above himself, and mourns as false to her wifely office the weakness that stoops to his degradation. Even though faulting her creed,



and laughing at her scruples, he will nevertheless, if she yield or parley, reproach her in his heart for not having outstood his siege with a virtue invincible as Enid's\* in Earl Doorm's Hall of Sin.

I speak, therefore, to you, young women, as devoted by your sex to a lifesafer from temptation than the life of men, who look up to you for religious guidance and blessing, and when these fail them, are disappointed with a disappointment that is more like faith's loss of God than like the perishing of any human treasure. Nor, in addressing you as thus "enskyed and sainted," am I using the hollow phrase of politeness, which were unworthy my office and this place. Sentiments that inform all modern art, and have created an epoch of civilization, do not need to be feigned. Raphael's Madonnas were pictures of his mother, whose motherhood seemed to him quite 'immaculate enough to be overshadowed by the Holy Ghost. Shakespeare, who never drew a hero or perfect man, has, as Ruskin points out, painted a heroine and perfect woman in almost every play. Cordelia, Hermione, Isabella, Desdemona, Imogen, Queen Catharine, Silvia, Viola, Perdita, Helena, Virgilia, and Rosalind—what a rosary of names, each a pearl of life-long whispered prayer.

[April 9.]

And those ages of chivalry, when every knight obeyed his lady's will and prayed for her favor as supreme reward—think you they were spent for a freak of courtesy; that a freak of courtesy could take possession of the armies of Christendom and subdue warlike passions that defied all other control? No; those gallant warriors knew full well that battles won, not by strategy, but in single combats and by fury of right arms, brought their worst passions into such frequent rage, that, to save life from lawlessness, they had to obey the one passion which alone could tame and lead the others, as Una† led the lion, by a sunbeam—the passion of love—love in each warrior for some gentle lady, whose days spent in castled quiet gave her spirit an equity which he might blindly follow, paying it the devoirs of his knightliest service. So, for a hundred years and more, the bravest,

noblest men of Europe knew no duty above their ladies' pleasure—a pleasure which justified confidence by raising civilization out of barbarism of almost unremittent strife into the peace which has wedded the warrior's courage to the lady's gentleness, conferring on him, as the proudest title he can wear at court or in necessary combat, the royal name of gentleman.

But for this devotion of knight to lady, there would have been no modern era with the finer social sentiments that pervade its institutions as with the music of a troubadour's song. And just in proportion as this devotion is lost, and men become skeptical of woman's sanctity, does society lose its moral no less than its sentimental tone. Etiquette may survive, bows be low and whispers fond to women who have other charms than those of intrinsic womanhood, but genuine courtesy, fidelity, fair-dealing, will have decayed.

The man who loses faith in woman has already lost faith in God, and will soon lose faith in his kind. Hence we are not surprised that a pessimist like Schopenhauer, who believed that there was no heart or a heart of infinite cruelty, at the center of the universe, hated women. So matter-of-fact an intellect as John Stuart Mill's, who in all his doubts of God, still cherished the instinct of worship, could find an ideal that seemed divine, in his wife, and wrote after her death: "Her memory is in me a religion, and her approbation, the standard by which, summing up as it does, all worthiness, I endeavor to regulate my life." The dry abstract thought of Comte, while devising a Godless religion that was yet to possess a church with priests and sacraments, had no option but to take women for its ecclesiastical angels. Surely, then, the soul must be worse than atheistic—must be already dead and putrid in its body—that speaks or thinks of woman as a mere doll of fashion, or spinning-top of whims, or tongue of gossip, or fool of flattery, or easy victim to adroit intrigues against her chastity, and only in her proper place when a household drudge. Such women there may be, but they misrepresent rather than betype true womanhood, which all the great poets, artists, and philosophers of the Christian era cannot have erred in setting high betwixt man and God.

[April 16.]

Not that woman is in every way above man any more than man in all respects surpasses

\*Enid and Earl Doorm are characters in Tennyson's "Idylls of the King," and the "Mabengian," a collection of fairy tales of the Welsh.

†A character in Spenser's "Faery Queen."

her. Their respective excellences complement, instead of rivalling each other. Each gives what the other wants, and thus their unlikeness becomes the cause and bond of their unity. Similar sand grains exist best apart, but opposite poles of a magnet cannot be sundered. The more womanly the wife, the manlier must be her husband. Only male women marry female men. For human nature is bi-sexual, and must remain male and female forever, a distinction as thorough in soul as in body, and without which character no more than life can be. Unlike bones, muscles, skin, countenance, tones of voice, bodily functions, express radical, unchangeable unlikeness of nature; man for action, dignity, strength; woman for patience, grace, beauty; their rights being exactly equal, man's to be all man, woman's to be all woman, and each sex wronged by the failure of the other to be its distinct and necessary self in the humanity that needs both to make it whole. For, while this humanity is impliedly whole in each, still one kind of faculty predominates in man, and another in woman—say judgment in man, and in woman love, though man's judgment may not be without love, nor woman's love without judgment.

Woman feels the truth man thinks, knows by insight of sympathy what man learns only by gropings of patient inquiry and deduction. Where she is intuitive, he is reflective; where she believes and has the certitude of faith, he doubts and weighs probabilities. Even when he does not intend to analyze, his mind is still analytic, and it is because of his attention to parts and processes that he is abler than she to devise and construct, though, for the same reason, less sensitive to the truth and beauty of organic wholeness. His standards are more relative, hers more absolute. He estimates by comparisons, she by intrinsic worth. Accordingly, the state, science, art—one-sided, abstract, dealing with parts and phases of mind—are his spheres, while hers are the family and church, which embrace the whole person. As his is the critical and self-conscious, hers is the instinctive and prophetic temper. The functions of maternity, actual or latent in her nature, ally it to the bee and bird, which have a sort of divine forethought in their simplest impulses. She weaves her creed from her spiritual wants, and shapes it to her soul as birds weave and shape their nests. Her conscience goes straight home to Right through densest

woods of casuistry, as wild bees fly to their hives.

Hers being the emotional, rather than the intellectual life, and love being to the emotions what reason is to ideas, it may be said, she lives to love and be lovely; to bless and be called blessed. In love she has her only contentment. Give her another's love, to awake and satisfy her own, and she can bear the loss of everything else; but give her everything else—wealth, knowledge, rank, fame—and take away love, and she is as one wrecked with a shipload of gold on a barren and solitary island. For it is the very self of woman to be unselfish. She is created for sacrifice. As wife she must surrender her name and personality to her husband; as mother, she must die as it were in child-bearing, to live again in her child; and so willing does love make this surrender and death, that she counts them her highest joy. Indeed, her commonest faults are but the excesses of this virtue. Her very vanity grows out of desire for such recognition as may prove worthy of the gift of her entire self. Man's ambition is by industry and talent to maintain his personality, and win for it wide recognition, but woman's is to have a beauty that may be hid and lost in man's life, filling it with fragrance, like a dell of violets in a forest of oaks.

And because "her graces make him rich and ask no guerdon," man cannot give her enough. He would add the world to himself as a requital, and still deem the offering unworthy. Her beauty, since beauty is the form of love, becomes to him the very mien of love divine, which he may worship without idolatry. All fair sights take their color from her eyes, all music is an echo of her voice. "The flowers, but for their hint of her, were naught"; and hence, he brings these scattered charms for a tribute, and binds them about her, as the shrine where they are seen in their true light to be charms of spirit more than of sense. For her adornment, evidently, nature's silks and furs and plumage were meant. Gems of mine and river and sea—the pearl, the diamond, the ruby—are out of place, and even in the sunshine, dark, when she does not wear them. No dogma is it, but the necessity of art, that her Madonna face should image the heart of God, whose inmost passion is Christ—the Christ she bore as her body's birth, and soul of her soul.

"Oh Virgin Mother, daughter of thy Son,  
Created beings all in lowliness  
Surpassing, as in height above them all;  
Term, by the eternal counsel pre-ordained,  
Ennobler of thy nature so advanced  
In thee, that its great Maker did not scorn  
Himself, in his own work, enclosed to dwell!"  
Dante's "Paradiso," xxxiii., 1-8.

[April 23.]

Now, it is the glory of either sex to preserve its distinctions. The male woman is as abnormal as the female man. When she tries to play the man's part in business or politics, or any sort of public career, she loses the grace of her own sex without gaining the strength of his. Aggressiveness, impetuosity, desire for renown—pardonable if not proper traits in him—are in her simply monstrous. The wretched delusion of the women who wish to share the privileges of men is to imagine that the masculine is the nobler sphere, that noise is better than quiet, strife than peace, restlessness than rest, publicity and show than contented doing of private duty, rugged insistence than gentle persuasion, prosaic understanding, with its scuffle of argument, than calm, poetic vision; self-assertion than self-sacrifice. Such, no doubt, was the heathen idea, and any return to it is heathenism. Heathen ethics was exclusively male, saw no nimbus about the head of woman, and treated her as a soulless scullion, or at best a plaything of flesh to be prized for fleshly beauty alone. Then if woman had known her rights she might have resented man's contempt with an Amazonian war. It is too late now. Christ has given the world a new morality which exalts the feminine virtues above those of force. Meekness, He said, was diviner than ambition, humility than pride, the strength that silently waits and suffers than the strength that can only bustle and stir, the recognition of truth by the sympathy of a true soul than the demand that it should be demonstrated to reluctant sense, Mary's "Rabboni" in the dim dawn by the empty sepulcher than Thomas' "My Lord and my God," after thrusting a skeptic finger into the spear-pierced side. Thus Christ honored woman as she had never been honored by prophet, reformer, or lawgiver before. The sisters of Lazarus, with Joanna and the wife of Cleopas, Salome, and Mary Magdalene, not to mention His blessed Mother, were more inti-

mate with His secret soul than were His favorite apostles, and well did they prove their worthiness of His trust, for when one apostle had betrayed, and another had denied Him, and the rest were fled away in fear, these women, brave where men were cowards, and heart-sure where men were doubting, lingered by His cross, and kept watch over against His tomb, in whose dark vault, when the third day broke, though Peter's anxious eye could see nothing but a folded napkin, they beheld the angels of the resurrection.

And from that daybreak until now women have been the foremost heralds of the life that rises out of death. They have preached it more eloquently by their examples than missionaries by their sermons. They have known the meaning of the cross as men can never imagine it, having for interpreter a cross in their hearts, as wives who must suffer vicariously for the sins of their husbands, and as mothers who must undergo pangs of crucifixion to give new life to the world. And wherever this incarnate cross is seen and felt it draws men upward with an irresistible attraction. Above saints and angels, the prayers of Margaret, in the highest heaven, lift Faust to God. "The eternal womanly leads the race on."

Even Goethe's indifference felt the leading, and some sense of it turned Renan's habitual sneer into the half-serious praise that "when reflection has brought us to the last limit of doubt, that the caucus, the hustings, the polls, will prove the spontaneous affirmation of the good and beautiful, which is to be found in the female conscience, delights us and settles the question for us. This is why religion is preserved to the world by woman alone."

Hence, though narrower than man's, her sphere is deeper and more abiding. Man moves his fellows from without; woman moves men by the innermost springs of their being. He is the lightning that noises forth its deeds; she the light that shines all day without a sound, to make the world habitable and glad. If he is law, she is gospel. He may rule, but she, by obedience, redeems. Her Calvary is mightier than his Sinai. *She must go backward, not forward, to become man.*

Already the mold and maker of men, among whom never yet lived one great that had not a great mother, she may be certain that her intelligence, learning, refinement,

moral habit, and religious devotion, however hidden by the privacy of domestic life, will at last reach the world and become public with all proper publicity of action and fame. What, then, is there that man possesses and woman lacks, of opportunity for making character felt to the furthest possible play of its forces? Can she ever expect to wield a more regal power than she now possesses? Can she ever hope to exert over the stiff and brittle adult a more plastic influence than she has folded about childhood and youth? Can she imagine more potent talismans than the fascinations of wife and mother? Does the hand that casts the ballot perform a higher function than the subtle, unseen nerve that guides its act? Suppose all women had what a few of them are seeking—the right to be men, or rather to ape them, for men they never can be—and insisted on using the queer right, do you not see that just in proportion as they became like men they would be treated as men, and would have to meet this treatment with a man's courage, cunning, hardness, and cruelty of competition, and that under such competition the usual traits which are effigied in female grace of feature and form—delicacy of thought, serenity of temper, candor, confidingness, pity that never grows callous, ignorance of those ways of the world the purest knowledge of which stains—all that makes womanhood to manhood as rest after toil, shade after noon-tide glare, moonlight and music after commonplace, vexatious day—all would be lost, and life dried into a flat and torrid and universal desert.

[April 30.]

Home, then, is woman's realm. There she is supreme. Her royalty is one of meek and quiet wisdom, and governs more absolutely than any czar—governs, not merely acts but wills; not merely wills, but motives; not merely motives, but loves, the fountain-head of disposition. For such government with such eternal ends as it contemplates, remember, young ladies—you who are one day to inherit it—no culture can be too diligent, no knowledge too vast or profound, no art too exquisite, no piety too faithful and devout. Greatly do you err if you imagine that you can spend your girlhood in idle frivolity, and trust chance for the powers that shall make your reign worshipful and benign. It is to be a reign of character alone, and character

must be imperial to command the reverence of its subjects. Ignorance they will not reverence, nor caprice, nor any frownsiness of thought. Should they prove disloyal, the fault will belong largely to a girlhood which, while looking forward to a crown, neglected the brow that was to wear it. Forget not, then, that you are born princesses, every one, and that no education befits your rank which fails to qualify you for a reign that exacts more versatile wit than any that sways gross masses of men. Forget not that your every charm and accomplishment of dress, manners, literature, art, needle-work, house-keeping, or rather home-keeping—including as it does all other accomplishments and charms—will tend to establish your future reign more firmly and make it more lasting over the lives it shall guard. Above all, bear in mind that to have aught of a Madonna's influence you must have something of the Madonna's piety, and be true handmaids of the Lord. For without piety the fairest woman lacks the very complexion of womanly character, and even sense and sin see the fatal defect.

But what of the princesses who never come to their thrones, and the queens driven from them by misfortune? They do not covet the prizes of men, yet they must perform men's tasks to preserve life and self-respect. It is only because they have no champions to stand between them and the world that they must face the world themselves. Women in every instinct and principle of their natures, delicate, modest, home-loving, they, notwithstanding, would rather earn their bread in any decent way than accept it as a gift without exchange of favor, or as the bribe of marriage unprompted by love; for no wrong can be done womanhood worse than its enslavement, body and soul, to a loveless wedlock. Shall they not be acknowledged as queens and princesses still, though in exile—Zenobias\* of the hearth—and receive from men the compassionate honor due to exiled royalty? Whether at the desk or in the shop or amid the whirl of factories they are entitled to the loyalty that can sympathize and protect as well as compliment and caress: and that only cloaks a hypocrite's heart if the devotion it pays to dress, jewels, elegant mansion, family name, or prospective wealth,

\*Zenobia was a noble queen of Palmyra who lived in the third century.



be denied to unadorned, essential womanhood. And should their need—which none deplore more than themselves—happen to displace men, let the men retire to pursuits that are more distinctively their own, or use their greater strength and courage to explore new vocations. Is gallantry only a trick of the backbone learned from dancing-masters and malapropos outside of the ballroom? Wherever they go, do not right-minded women take with them the home—which, after all,

is not a style of house so much as the sense of right-minded woman's presence—claiming, though they be neither wives nor mothers, all the homage due to both, especially when they do the mother's part in teaching the young and the part of wife in nursing the sick—a joint endeavor to make the limits of home as wide as the world, so that the wide world shall contain no vagrant or lost soul unblest by woman's wisest and kindest tenderness.—*Rev. Robert A. Holland, S. T. D.*

## SCIENTIFIC PHASES OF MINING.

BY ALBERT WILLIAMS, JR.

## SECOND ARTICLE.

MODERN mechanical progress has done as much for mining as for manufactures. Without machinery the most important mining enterprises of to-day would not be carried on, and all except the most primitive would be crippled. Only a century ago a very wet mine would have had to be abandoned unless it could be unwatered by a long drainage tunnel; and if so situated that this were practicable, the driving of such a tunnel without power drills and without high explosives would have entailed much greater expense than corresponding work now. Miners have for ages had the hand-windlass and the horse-whim\* for hoisting, and indeed use them yet in opening mines; but for handling large quantities or for deeper sinking something better is demanded.

Space does not admit even a full enumeration of the multitude of machines used in mining. Some notion of this variety may be had by looking over the twenty-seven illustrated pamphlets which one shop making mining machinery finds it necessary to issue by way of catalogue. But roughly speaking, the machinery comes under these heads: machines for hoisting, pumping, ventilating, drilling, underground haulage and for miscellaneous operations at the surface (as in the repair, carpenter's, machine, and blacksmith's shops, wire ropeways, planes, etc.). The prime motors are driven either by steam (boilers and engines) or by water (turbines,

impact wheels, overshot wheels). Steam is used not only in the surface plant but also underground to operate pumps. Water is used directly for power in stamp mills and concentrating mills; less frequently to operate hoists, Cornish pumps, air compressors, blowers, and fans; and in a few cases is sent underground to drive hydraulic pumps. Compressed air (furnished mainly by steam power) is used to transmit power to the machine drills, winze\* hoists, and pumps, also assisting in ventilation. Electricity (furnished preferably by water power, also by steam) has now been applied to every department of underground work where machinery of any kind is available; also to lighting, signaling, and simultaneous blasting. Another mode of transmitting power is by wire rope, especially for surface tramways and underground haulage.

Large mines have more or less of this machinery, and at some of them it is the predominating feature. The managers need not be mechanical engineers, since at such mines they are able to employ skilled mechanics to attend to details, and can call in consulting engineers for advice. The firms who supply mine machinery also, if required, make a business of erecting it and seeing that it is in smooth running order. Thus in one way and another the mine superintendent of a big mine is relieved of part of the mechanical work. Still he cannot shift the responsibility, and he must have a general insight into this department. The more he knows of it in its prac-

\* A large capstan or vertical drum for raising ore or water from mines.

\* A small shaft sunk from one level to another for the purpose of ventilation. Winzes also to a certain extent serve for removing the ore.

tical details the better is he prepared for his profession. Some men who have been trained as mechanical engineers have made excellent mine superintendents where the works under their charge had a heavy equipment of machinery, and where success or failure largely depended upon its design and management. The essential point to be noted here, however, is not whether one man or another should have this special training, nor who of the mine officers should have the responsibility for the mechanical department, but that the art of mining implies the introduction of that of mechanical engineering also. Consequently, no matter how indirectly, it involves the application of all the sciences upon which the latter art is founded—mathematics, mechanics, and physics (thermodynamics,\* kinematics,† hydraulics,‡ electricity, etc.).

We are now led to a rather unexpected conclusion, namely, that in one sense it is easier and requires less specific knowledge to superintend a large mine than a smaller one. The technical staff of the former may consist of several men (a surveyor and draftsman, an assayer, skilled machinists, mine foreman, etc.), each competent in his own sphere, and thus leave the superintendent free to give his main attention to the large questions of mine policy and administration. It may be that in some specialties he is less proficient than his subordinates; but he should have at least sufficient insight into details to control intelligently the working of the whole as a unit. At a mine employing say twenty to fifty men such a staff would be top-heavy, and there the superintendent would be expected to act not only as general manager but also fill all the usual subordinate functions of a technical character.

Mining is subject to sudden emergencies and accidents which have to be met with prompt, decided action. In order that this action may be efficient a readiness of resource is invaluable. It can only be cultivated by experience and a wide range of information as to what measures have been adopted in parallel cases; and sometimes the contingency to be faced is a wholly novel one. In the sudden disasters threatening life or property are often seen instances of what appear to be original expe-

dients hit upon for the occasion; these would not however occur to the ignorant. To a certain extent the emergencies are foreseen and the remedies thought out in advance, so that there may be no needless delay when the time for action comes; but often they are of a character that could hardly be provided against. There are lesser difficulties that are liable to occur any day, and these require that the miner should be a sort of jack-at-all-trades, with considerable constructive ingenuity. Especially is this true of mines of moderate size in out-of-the-way districts where there is no recourse to expert assistance. A superintendent in such a situation may have to design a roof-truss or a bridge, lay out a road, run a sawmill, repair a complicated piece of machinery, or take off his coat and set fire-brick, being the only person at hand who could attempt any of these things—and he can never tell what new demand may be made upon him. Many of the details appear to be in the province of the artisan rather than of the technologist, yet they are very likely to come within the broad scope of applied science.

The minerals mined are not the only raw material of mining. A long list of supplies (fuel, timber, illuminants, lubricants, fuse, caps, explosives, unmanufactured metals, like drill steel, replaceable parts of machinery, and so on) should be regarded in the same light. Their qualities must be understood in order to make the best use of them. On the other hand, after the mining comes the disposal of the product. It may require a preliminary treatment to render it marketable (as in breaking, screening, and washing coal) or concentration (with metalliferous\* ores to reduce bulk and the cost of freight). Very frequently the improvement of the product at the mine takes the form of a true metallurgical† process either as an intermediate stage (as in matte‡ smelting) or as a final operation (as in the reduction to a commercial article, like precious metal bullion, pig iron, copper bars, coke, etc.). The professional miner is expected to combine in himself the functions of the metallurgist also. If he does not directly manage this part of the work, he may have to supervise it. Metal-

\*[Ther-mo-dy-nam'ics.] The science which treats of the mechanical action of heat.

†[Kin-e-mat'ics.] The science which treats of motions.

‡Hy-drau'tics.] The science which treats of fluids, especially water, in motion.

\*[Met-al-lif'er-ous.] Metal bearing or producing.

†[Met-al-lur'gic-al.] Pertaining to met'al-lur-gy, the art of working metals.

‡A product of the smelting of sulphureted ores, obtained in the process which follows the roasting.

lurgy itself stands half way between mining on the one side and manufacturing on the other. By some it is regarded as a subdivision of mining.

Some mining engineers make a specialty of examining mines and prospects and reporting upon them for the guidance of investors. Others serve in the consulting capacity, for mines already under way. Although these men devote attention preferably to certain lines, they are called upon to decide in a variety of contingencies, and have to possess not only the specific knowledge of the superintending engineers but also a broad grounding besides in almost everything pertaining to the profession.

Thus far we have been considering, in a necessarily incomplete and sketchy way, some of the manifold branches into which mining ramifies, in order to obtain a partial realization of the vista thus opened. Incidentally the nearest related arts and professions have been cursorily alluded to. Perhaps the connection may be more clearly appreciated by a glance at the following review :

ARTS, INDUSTRIES, AND SCIENCES UPON WHICH  
PROFESSIONS DRAWN THEY ARE BASED.  
UPON IN MINING.

<i>Civil Engineering</i> (topography, mensuration, surveying, mapping, strength of materials, construction, roads, transportation, water supply, etc.).	<i>Mathematics</i> (arithmetic, algebra, geometry, trigonometry, logarithms, graphic statics). <i>Physics</i> (in general).
<i>Mechanical engineering</i> (powers, prime motors, secondary motors, machines, tools, apparatus, designing, drawing, construction, repair).	<i>Mathematics</i> . <i>Physics</i> (kinematics, thermodynamics, electricity, hydraulics, pneumatics). <i>Mechanics</i> .
<i>Electrical engineering</i> (powers, generators, electric engines and machines, lights, signals, exploders, etc.).	<i>Mathematics</i> . <i>Physics</i> (electricity). <i>Mechanics</i> .
<i>Hydraulic engineering</i> (water supply, hydraulic mining, prime motors, transmission of power, machines).	<i>Mathematics</i> . <i>Physics</i> (hydraulics and hydrostatics). <i>Mechanics</i> .
<i>Applied chemistry</i> (assaying, tests, metallurgy, explosives).	<i>Theoretical chemistry</i> . <i>Physics</i> (heat).

*Preparation of material* (various productive and manufacturing industries). Various, indirectly.

*Disposal of product* (metallurgy, manufactures, railways and other means of transportation). Various, indirectly.

*Law* (location of claims, titles, contracts).

*Miscellaneous* (carpentry, sawmills, blacksmithing, etc.).

The one science which above all others has the most intimate relationship to mining, and has the most commanding interest to the miner, is geology. Fournet has remarked, as to its origin, that "metals having become of the first necessity to man, it is to the study of their various modes of occurrence, and of their relations to phenomena affecting the adjacent country, that the science of geology owes its birth." There are some geologists who affect to look down upon any application of the science which has an immediate economic bearing, so that it is well to remember that the utilitarian motive has been the main incentive in its development. The only other object which seems to have attracted ancient and medieval thought to it was a curiosity to find out whether fossils were freaks of nature, relics of the Noachian deluge, or tricks of the devil.

The science still gains much from mining explorations, the opportunities by means of long adits,\* deep shafts, and bore holes to examine the internal structure of the earth beyond the range of surface observation, and from the mass of detailed data acquired in mining. The art derives a reflex benefit from the science by turning its inductions into deductions that serve as useful working rules. If geology owes much to mining it is beginning to repay its debt.

General geology comprises both field geology (observation) and theoretical geology (resulting from ratiocination†). Its subdivisions are so interwoven as to be confusing, and a clear-cut classification is hardly possible; but to form some idea as to what por-

\*[Ad'its.] The nearly horizontal openings by which mines are entered, or by which water and ores are carried out.

†[Rash-i os i-na'tion.] The process of reasoning or deducing conclusions from premises.

tions most nearly concern the miner, it may be regarded under three main heads: (1) historical geology, (2) structural geology, and (3) economic geology. These branches overlap each other somewhat. The first two are mutually interdependent, and the last draws upon both of the others. Back of them is the correlation of all the physical sciences, running from astronomy and cosmology\* at one extreme down to the minutest subdivision of physics and chemistry at the other, with pure mathematics as the mode of analysis of many of the problems.

Economic geology is the science of deposits of ores and other useful minerals, their origin, mode of occurrence, associations, alterations, and the effects of dynamic disturbances upon them. It applies to petroleum, natural gas, brine, and mineral waters, even to artesian† wells, not merely to the solid substances usually thought of as the only "minerals." To apply its principles in mining does not demand a very deep insight into the other branches; but some knowledge of their fundamental principles makes the application more intelligible. The prospector, the miner, and the well-borer do not realize that they are practical geologists, do not give their vocations so large a name as "economic geology," and do not spell "science" with a capital S. But the question of terms does not alter the case.

Mineralogy (descriptive and determinative) is the most important subsience in economic geology. It is the foundation of lithology (science of rocks), which applies particularly to building stone and some other substances quarried; and it in turn is based upon chemistry (as to the composition of minerals) and crystallography‡ (as to their form). Crystallography carries us back to geometry and optics. There are other distinguishing marks, as color, hardness, specific gravity, magnetic properties, fusibility, etc., used in determining them. Many of the tests are of a rough-and-ready sort, but not necessarily unscientific on that account.

\*[Cos-mol'o-gy.] The science of the universe; "it relates to the structure and parts of the system of creation, the element of bodies, the modifications of material things, the laws of motion, and the order and course of nature."

†[Ar-te'sian.] Wells made by boring into the earth till the instrument reaches water, which from internal pressure flows spontaneously like a fountain.

‡[Crys-tal-log'ra-phy.] The science of crystallization, which is the process by which a substance in solidifying assumes the form of a crystal.

Historical geology gives the relative dates of the formation of certain substances, and fixes the horizons in which these are exclusively or most likely to be found. Paleontology (science of fossils) is the index to the time record. Its study is left by the miner to the professional geologist. It runs into biology and its branches, zoölogy and botany. *Stra-tig'ra-phy* (the arrangement and sequence of strata) is indexed by both paleontology and lithology. The occurrence of coal is a familiar instance of the manner in which historical geology bears upon the economic branch. As to origin and time it is found that the coal vegetation flourished and the conditions for coal-making were present mainly in the carboniferous\* age, and again (for certain localities, especially in western North America) in the tertiary.† Below or above certain rock horizons, depending upon locality, coal is not sought. Lithologically, the overlying roof shales and slates and the underlying fire-clay are significant. Further, the character of the coal is influenced by its stratigraphical position, as well as by metamorphism‡ caused by volcanic heat or mechanical agencies. The time limits within which many substances were deposited are not so well defined; but they hold good for some (graphite, marls, gypsum, a few metalliferous deposits, etc.). With fuller observations more definite rules may be formulated. For the present it is something to have an inkling as to mere likelihood of occurrence or change in certain formations rather than others, and perhaps negative testimony is quite as useful. An illustration of how a little geological knowledge would have saved time and money was furnished by prospecting for natural gas under hopeless conditions—hopeless, that is, so far as any negative reasoning can be relied on. In this case a bore hole was put down through possible gas-holding strata; when, no gas having been struck, the drilling was continued for a great depth in the solid granite bedrock.

Structural geology throws light upon the

\*[Car-bon-if'er-ous.] In geology, the age which is characterized by the vegetation which formed the coal beds.

†[Ter'shi-a-ry.] The first period of the age of mammals.

‡[Met-a-mor'phism.] The process by which the material of rock masses has been more or less recrystallized by heat, pressure, etc., as in the change of sedimentary limestone to marble.



formation of fissures and channels through which ore-bearing solutions have passed and precipitated in veins. It explains the formation of many bedded deposits derived from erosion and sedimentation. It furnishes a clue to the changes in dip and the depth to which mineral-bearing strata are carried by flexures and foldings. If it gave no more to economic geology than the law of faults,\* by which the lost portion of a fractured and displaced bed or vein may be intelligently searched for, the miner should be thankful. One of its most common and practical applications is in boring for artesian water.

Geologists have made mistakes and will continue to make them, for their science is far from being an exact one. But there is a strong and growing tendency, in correspondence with the whole current of modern scientific method of rigidly separating fact from opinion, toward a cautious avoidance of hasty generalizations. As data accumulate, theories will become more stable. The science has a grand future, the possibilities of which are only beginning to be realized. Even now its practical applications are of great moment; and we may well believe that one by one the problems which are puzzling miners will be solved, so that the least understood facts of ore-deposition may be expected to be explained and placed on the same footing as those which to-day are clear but very recently were obscure. It is necessary to have a just conception of the present limitations of geological prescience, of what is absolute and immutable, what sufficiently tested to serve as fairly reliable hypothesis, and what merely

supposition. This demarcation being fixed, the geologist knows how far to trust himself to inductions; and the miner how far he can turn them to account.

The literature of mining is already enormous. It is in the nature of the industry that a large part of what is written about it should have only transitory interest and soon become obsolete or useful only as a record of observations, experiments, failures, and successes. The technology\* is being constantly improved, so that the mining of to-day is very different from that of a generation or a decade ago, and is bound to advance.

A course of reading for those who do not intend to make mining their occupation, but desire to be informed about it in a general way, would include elementary treatises on chemistry, mineralogy, and geology, and a few of the simpler books on mining proper. The manuals of the latter kind are not quite all they should be, sometimes becoming rather puerile in the endeavor of their authors to make them comprehensible. The more advanced works, such as are used as textbooks in the professional schools, are too technical for the general reader, and some are not intended for continuous reading but for reference. Probably the best plan for any one interested in the subject who does not care to go very deeply into it would be to ask the advice of some engineering friend who would be able to recommend books suited to the reader's proficiency in fundamental studies.

\*[Tek-nol'o-gy.] Industrial science, the science of the industrial arts, especially of the more important manufactures.

\*A dislocation of the strata or vein.

(The end.)

## AMERICAN AND GRECIAN JURISPRUDENCE COMPARED.\*

BY SAMUEL M. DAVIS, ESQ.

Of the Minneapolis Bar.

**L**AW properly administered is the best safeguard of government, and permits liberty to have its largest and fullest scope. The end and aim in the administration of law is to secure the ends of justice by maintaining the rights of the state and of the individual either by applying

proper remedies or enforcing just penalties. Just in proportion as this is accomplished, human life and property will be safe, and the state will be summoned forward to the highest commercial and national prosperity. In order to secure the proper administration of justice, courts of law have been an important and necessary function of every civilized government.

\*Special Course for C. L. S. C. Graduates.

The United States naturally and logically fell heir to the customs and precedents of the English courts of law. When England sent out her colonies the courts, like most of her other institutions, reappeared upon new soil, and had gained before the Revolution a position similar to that they held at home. While the new and varying conditions of a young and progressive country modified in some degree the workings of the judicial system, yet the main features and foundation principles of trial by judge and jury, and a graduated system of appellate courts, together with such vested rights as the writ of *habeas corpus*,\* public and speedy trials, and freedom of speech and of the press were all retained, and are to-day a recognized and essential part of the judicial procedure in every court. When the Constitution of the United States was adopted the departments of government were divided into legislative, executive, and judicial. The judicial power was vested in the supreme court, and in the circuit and district courts. In addition to these federal courts, each state has its own courts for the trial of causes arising between its own inhabitants. The various state and federal courts work together in perfect harmony under a strong centralized government.

The defect in the political arrangements of Greece was the want of a federal union, with an effective central government. The defect in the constitution of Athens was the want of a distinct executive head, and the blending of legislative, executive, and judicial functions in the same persons. Yet we can trace every maxim of civil prudence to the philosophers and statesmen of Greece. In the practical working of the civil institutions of Athens, commerce, industry, and the arts flourished; and this shows a high degree of confidence in the wisdom of the government. Abuses no doubt existed and crimes were committed; but during the whole history of the courts of Athens, nothing was perpetrated so bad as the judicial murders which have stained the annals of England, no deed so dark and revolting as the bloody trials for witchcraft in New England.

The bench, the jury, and the bar are the

\* "A writ having for its object to bring a party before a court or judge; especially one to inquire into the cause of a person's imprisonment or detention by another, with a view to protect the right of personal liberty; also one to bring a prisoner into court to testify in a pending trial."

three chief parts of the machinery in the courts of law in the United States. The judges preside over the court and decide points of law, deliver the charge to the jury, and pronounce sentence in accordance with the findings of the verdict as rendered by the jury. The jury listens to the evidence submitted to it and passes upon the facts. It has nothing to do with the law, but its whole duty is to decide what are the facts in any given case after it has heard the evidence and seen the witnesses examined before it. The lawyers appear before the court for their clients, cite the law bearing upon the case, examine and cross-examine the witnesses, argue points of law, make the plea for their clients before the jury and court, and conduct all the details of the pleadings and the trial. The party to a suit rarely or never appears before the court without a lawyer who acts as his advocate. The trial by a jury of twelve has come down to us from early Anglo-Saxon times. When a man is put upon trial he is tried by twelve of his peers, "good and true men." From their decision appeal can be taken to the highest court, and in case passion or prejudice can be shown, their verdict can be set aside and the prisoner allowed another trial. Thus by safeguards and checks the rights of the individual are protected. Without dwelling longer on the detail of trials at present in the United States, doubtless familiar to most of us, let us glance somewhat minutely at the courts and trials of ancient Greece and compare and contrast them with our own.

The great mass of the legal business at Athens was transacted by the dicasts, or jurymen. Five thousand of these were annually drawn by lot from the ten tribes, and to these were added a thousand supernumeraries, making the whole number six thousand. A single jury, numbering five hundred, usually constituted a court. Sometimes when the cause seemed to be of great public interest and importance, two or three were united, so that the number of dicasts sitting on a single case might vary from a quorum of less than three hundred to a thousand or fifteen hundred. Each case was entered with some magistrate whose jurisdiction was fixed by law, and he prepared it for trial by the court and presided at the trial. His functions and prerogatives bore no resemblance to the modern judge. He merely in the first instance determined whether there

was any ground for action; and if there was officiated as chairman, maintaining order, and putting the question to vote when the pleadings were over. The oath administered to each dicast before taking his seat is given by Demosthenes in the oration against Timocrates:

"I will vote according to the laws and the decrees of the people of Athens, and of the Senate of Five Hundred, and I will not vote for a tyrant or an oligarchy. . . . I will hear both the accuser and the defendant impartially, and will so decide on the matter of the prosecution. I imprecate destruction on myself and my house if I violate any of these obligations, but if I keep my oath I pray for many blessings."

Law cases were generally divided into two classes, according as they affected the individual or the public. Another distinction was made between cases in which a fine or penalty was to be estimated by the dicasts, and those in which it was fixed by the laws. The theory of legal process required the parties to conduct the business in person. There was no bar as in our times, but the litigants were at liberty to consult friends or experts in the law. This is in strong contrast to our courts both in theory and practice. Only one who is well versed in the law and has made it a profession is at all well qualified to appear before a modern court and conduct a case. The practice at Athens was not uniform, but the rule generally seems to have been that a speaker was not allowed to appear as an advocate, unless he had some interest in the cause. But although originally parties were not allowed to avail themselves of the assistance of advocates to plead their causes for them, this rule was so far relaxed in after times that a relative or friend was permitted to speak in their behalf, if they were prevented by illness or other disability from conducting their own cause. Sometimes, however, we find a party to a suit lamenting his inefficiency as a speaker, which proves that it was by no means a universal rule to employ a friend as an advocate, even when there might be a valid plea for making use of his services.

The increased complication of the laws, and the variety of cases which came before the Greek courts, in the course of time required a class of men like modern lawyers. Strictly speaking there was no bar in Athens. The plaintiff and the defendant, the prosecutor and the accused, were compelled to ap-

pear personally and to argue the cases themselves. But it is evident that this could not always be done; and the parties in a suit or prosecution would resort for advice and aid to persons who were known or supposed to be familiar with the laws, and skillful in preparing an argument. Thus a class of lawyers were called into existence by the wants of the public, which could not dispense with their aid. The counselor sometimes prepared the speech, and his client delivered it in court. This was the ordinary occupation of a class of distinguished men at Athens, such as Antiphon, Lysias, Isæus, and Isocrates, who gained a livelihood by it, after Antiphon had first set the example of receiving fees for his services, in thus providing the litigant parties with the means of attack and defense. It has been thought by some that the spirited speeches in which Demosthenes attacked his embezzling guardians, when only nineteen years of age, were composed for him by Isæus. He also used to employ himself in the same vocation, until public affairs absorbed his whole attention. This method enabled the lawyer to get a double fee by writing on both sides, though it is likely that this was rarely done. By degrees, the custom naturally arose for the party in the case to open his defense or accusation in a brief speech, and then to ask permission of the court for his friend who stood by him, to finish the argument. Many of the extant speeches of the Attic orators were either not delivered at all by their authors, or were uttered only in continuation of an argument opened by the litigant. The people sometimes appointed advocates to manage causes in which important public interests were at stake. We learn that on one occasion Æschines was appointed; but the court of the Areopagus cancelled the appointment on the ground of his being an unsuitable person to represent the city, and selected Hyperides in his stead.

With reference to the fees made by advocates at Athens, the theory at the first was that the lawyer appearing for his friend should not take a fee, but so paradoxical a doctrine probably never gained an extensive assent among the practical members of the profession. Large incomes were made by able men, such as Isæus, Lysias, and Isocrates, who occupied themselves with this as the business of their lives.

The dicast received from the paymaster

about nine cents for every day's work, and the demagogue Cleon, whose great object was to ingratiate himself with the people, trebled the amount; so that the exercise of their judicial functions became, to a large number of citizens, a means of livelihood, as well as amusement; and they found it more agreeable to meet their gossips on the bench, and to listen to the speeches of the suitors or their friends, than to devote themselves to the drudgery of their ordinary trades. Hence Isocrates complained that the lower orders at Athens preferred to stay at home and sit as dicasts in the courts, rather than engage in the maritime service of the state. The following estimate of the dicastery shows its power:

"The real power of the Athenian *demoi*, as he himself well knew, lay in the courts of law. There was his throne and there his scepter. There he found compliment, court, and adulation rained upon him so thick that his imagination began at last to believe what his flatterers assured him, that he was a god, and not a man. And a god in some sense he was, for to no earthly tribunal lay there an appeal from his decree; his person was irresponsible, his decrees irreversible, and if ever there was a despotism complete in itself it was that of an Athenian court of judicature."

Notwithstanding this arraignment, there is no doubt that the law was in general fairly administered by the Grecian courts. Every question involving the rights of person or property was discussed with consummate ability, as we learn from the extant pleadings of the Athenian advocates. But there was no learned, upright, and independent judge to rule the points of law, and to sum up the evidence in the case. The dicasts took the law and the evidence into their own hands; and from their verdict, however unjust, there lay no appeal. The passions and prejudices of the moment were excluded from the seats of justice by no barrier which they could not easily overleap. The consequence was, and here we have a most instructive fact in the history of jurisprudence, that the courts of Greece, at times, were stained with acts of perjury and blood, which fill us with disgust and horror as we read them, and it is not strange that Plato, after the judicial murder of Socrates, placed them on the same level with other mobs. But this at least may be said, that the administration of the law was open and public, and became a matter of history.

The influence of the people was very profoundly felt in the courts of law, and more especially in those where the number of jurymen was large. This mode of trial anticipated in part the principle of the jury trial. The dicasts however were judges and jurymen combined. They were known as *enomotoi*, sworn triers of the case before them; but they were not in theory the peers of the prisoner standing to defend him from the government considered as the prosecuting party; they were his peers, but at the same time they were a popular assembly, representing the sovereign people and exercising a function of government. The contending parties made their own statements, produced their own witnesses, looked up the laws, had such passages as they thought applicable to their cases read by the secretary of the court, and the presiding officer never interfered. When the vote was to be taken, or as we should say, the verdict rendered, the herald called upon those who thought the accused guilty to hold up their hands, which were counted; then those who thought him innocent did the same, and the votes of the majority decided the case. Sometimes a ballot was taken and a bean, or pebble, or mussel-shell, or brass ball, according to the nature of the trial, was deposited in one of two urns, and here again the major vote decided the case. It is easy to see in this arrangement a sway of the popular will too open to the inroads of passion and prejudice to be always safe for the citizen or conducive to the ends of justice; yet an impartial student of history will confess that the cases of gross wrong were few and at long intervals. It is true there were some terrible illustrations of the deadly force of popular prejudice and unreasoning fury, unchecked by the strong barrier of a learned and independent judiciary.

It is quite probable that the business transacted in the courts was of moderate extent at first; but with the rapidly unfolding power of the commonwealth, the number of cases of litigation was proportionately increased. The commercial relations of the Athenians were extended and complicated; the mechanic arts were numerous; while enlarged political power from various circumstances led to the numerous entanglements with foreign cities and kingdoms. From the islands of the *Ægean* and the shores of Asia Minor, as well as from the distant dependencies along the coast of Thrace, wealthy citizens were sum-



moned before the Anthenian tribunals, to answer charges of disaffection and sedition, the real object being to plunder them of their property under the mockery of legal forms. The Piræus became the emporium of the world. A financial system of the most refined kind was gradually formed with increasing wants of the state. An extensive mercantile marine came into active operation. Questions on loans, securities, interest, contracts, guardianships; a complex system of port-duties; disputes as to temple property, and the rights of temple corporations; controversies between citizens of the allied states and citizens of Athens, which were carried up to the courts of Athens,—all of which caused a rapid accumulation of business, which finally employed a large part of the citizens in daily attendance upon the dicasteries. The fees they received made it for their personal interest to multiply the cases as far and as fast as possible, and generated a love of litigation which, while it sharpened the intellect, was a dangerous enemy to regular industry, and undermined the moral character.

It cannot be denied that there were dangers in the judicial system of Athens and the dicastic disease was one of them. No one felt any responsibility for the measures for which he voted. Another and more serious danger was the risk of sacrificing the object of popular dislike to the passions of the hour, as was

done in the case of Socrates. But with all these perils and morbid tendencies, the Greek process was open and above-board. There was no stealthy arrest; no hurrying to prison without remedy, or keeping in prison without end; no secret questioning; no hopeless concealment from the public eye. The arrest was in broad day; the trial was in open court; fellow-citizens pronounced the verdict, after a defense in which all freedom of speech was allowed, and the accuser was confronted with the accused. In a long course of administration of private and public justice, the cases are very few in the Grecian courts where wrong was done or right was not done. It may be confidently affirmed that in the variety of questions discussed, and in the general soundness and equity of the decisions, and in the ability with which the cases were argued, the history of the popular courts in Athens will compare favorably with that of the United States. But with all its faults and vices, the Grecian republic developed the ideas of law and order, of equity and justice, which lie at the basis of good government wherever existing; and it has left the imperishable records of its wisdom and experience as fountains of instruction to the world. It would be well if America should learn a lesson from the ancient republic and emulate her justice and fairness while she avoids her excesses and failures.

## THE COTTON MANUFACTURES OF NEW ENGLAND.

BY EDWARD STANWOOD.

NEW ENGLAND has a few patches of fertile soil, but of the food-materials needed for its population and its cattle it raises a sufficiency of potatoes and hay only. Its crop of wheat is not large enough to supply the people of Vermont with bread. Its forests have been cut down. Its only mineral resources are its quarries of building stone. Thus it is dependent upon other regions more favored by nature for the lumber needed to construct its dwellings and for fuel to warm them in winter. Upon its hillsides graze a few scattered sheep, but their fleeces yield only a fraction of the amount of wool needed to clothe its own people; and it raises not a pound of cotton from its own soil. Yet this community which could from its own

natural resources do scarcely more than to furnish the brick or stone shell of a factory, which must draw from without its limits the timber and the glass to finish the structure, the iron to make its boilers and machinery, the coal to make steam, and all the raw material of manufacture,—this community spins more than three fourths of the cotton that is consumed in the country, uses fully one half the wool that is grown upon American sheep and that is imported from abroad, and manufactures the boots and shoes worn by more than one half of the people of the United States.

Agriculture is the leading industry over almost the whole area of the country, but in New England the first place is taken by man-

ufacturing. The returns of occupations according to the Census of 1890 have not yet been published. In 1880 almost exactly forty per cent of those returned for New England as engaged in any occupation earned their living by manufacturing and mechanical industries.

Among all the industries of New England the manufacture of cotton stands first. It employs more people than any other branch of manufacturing, as well as the largest amount of capital invested in any single industry. It is that trade in which the factory system has reached its highest development. In it labor shows its most perfect organization.

If we turn back to the condition that existed a hundred years ago we shall find that the clothing of the people consisted almost entirely of homespun woolen and linen. Cotton fabrics were a semi-luxury. The preparation of the lint for spinning was a slow and laborious process, and prior to 1790 there was not a power spindle in operation in the country. England had already made progress with the industry; but its stringent laws against the exportation of machinery prevented the introduction of the British contrivances for spinning, and American invention was not yet equal to the task of producing something equally effective.

In 1790 Samuel Slater came to New York from England, where he had been employed in a cotton mill, and brought a spinning frame *in his head*. Without a pattern or a model he had in a few months made and set up at Pawtucket a so-called water frame of seventy-two spindles, and the first successful cotton mill in the United States was in operation. An enlargement of this mill, the building of others, the invention of the cotton gin by Whitney, and the vast extension of cotton-growing in the South, were events that followed each other quickly. Cotton manufacturing was in a position to be greatly stimulated by the interruption of commerce between 1807 and 1815. At the close of the second war with England the mills of the United States were capable of supplying the whole home demand for cotton goods. The re-establishment of peace threw open the market to English manufacturers who speedily entered and occupied it. But Congress hastened to expel the intruders and to bolt the door upon them by means of a tariff which secured the home market to American mills.

The policy then adopted has been pursued with little change to the present time. The "Walker Tariff" of 1846 laid a duty upon imported cottons sufficiently high to be fairly "protective." When the Civil War broke out rates almost prohibitory were levied. They have been repeatedly and steadily reduced, but are still so high that no cotton goods except a few special fabrics and laces can be imported in competition with the home product. At no time since 1830 has the value of home manufactured cotton goods consumed been less than three fourths of the total; and during the last twenty years it has been more than seven eighths of the whole.

The history of the development of cotton manufacturing in the United States has been the history of a New England industry. During the last ten years there has been an extraordinary growth of this business in the South, but New England still reports more than three fourths of the spindles in operation in the country. Great towns have been built up where cotton spinning and weaving form the leading industry,—which not only gives direct employment to thousands of people, but lays a solid foundation for a prosperous local trade in whatever a New England community needs to eat, drink, and wear.

Taking New England as a whole, the Census shows that these six states had in operation in 1890 no less than 10,836,155 spindles, and 250,116 looms. The spinning capacity was just about one fourth of that of Great Britain.

The manufacture has established itself as an important industry in all the states of New England except Vermont. The following tables show the number of spindles and looms in each of the six states in 1880 and 1890:

	Spindles.		Looms.	
	1880.	1890.	1880.	1890.
Maine.....	695,924	885,762	15,971	21,825
N. H.....	944,053	1,195,643	24,299	31,850
Vermont.....	53,081	71,591	1,180	1,175
Mass.....	4,236,084	5,824,518	95,321	133,227
R. I.....	1,764,569	1,924,486	29,669	43,106
Conn.....	936,376	934,155	18,261	18,933
Total....	8,630,087	10,836,155	184,701	250,116

These mills consumed 1,425,958 bales of cotton, or about one fifth of the total cotton crop of the United States during that year. They gave employment to 148,718 hands, including 63,749 men, 73,445 women, and 10,165 children.

They paid out \$49,908,591 in wages, and the total value of products at the mills, not including commission or cost of selling, was \$181,112,453. The details of the amount and value of the chief articles of production are interesting. The following statement gives the leading facts regarding the goods manufactured.

## WOVEN GOODS.

	Square yards.	Value.
Print cloths. ....	811,945,763	\$36,811,201
Sheetings & shirtings. .	634,487,634	37,784,925
Drills, twills & sateens.	258,208,626	18,475,344
Ginghams. ....	114,092,225	9,975,197
Cotton flannel. ....	110,106,513	8,887,302
Ticks, denims & stripes.	130,778,135	13,516,387
Fine fabrics. ....	117,000,295	11,102,236
Duck. ....	16,979,346	2,836,615

2,193,598,537 \$139,389,207

## YARN AND THREAD.

	Pounds.	Value.
Yarn for weaving. ....	62,779,938	\$15,380,453
Sewing cotton. ....	9,454,240	7,860,189

72,234,178 \$23,240,642

Other products. .... \$18,482,604

It will be noticed that the quantities of all woven goods are stated in square yards and not, as has been heretofore usual, in "running" yards. The cotton cloth turned out of New England mills during that year would cover an area of more than 700 square miles, or more than two thirds the land surface of Rhode Island. There was quite enough spool cotton manufactured to sew it all into garments, for if we suppose that the sewing cotton averaged "No. 60" the length of it represented in the nearly nine and a half million pounds was about one hundred and eight million miles, or more than the distance from the earth to the sun. The statement of the quantities of various kinds of goods manufactured is interesting as showing for what classes of fabrics there is the greatest demand. The largest amount of any class of woven goods here reported is that of print cloths. These are goods of medium fineness, made to a large extent of an inferior grade of cotton, which are printed, and become the "calico," or "prints" of commerce. Next in amount are the sheetings and shirtings which, indeed, represent a slightly larger value than the print cloths, and in the country at large exceed those goods both in quantity and value. If we add together the value of print

cloths, sheetings, gingham, cotton flannels, and ticks made in New England, we have a total of one hundred and seven million dollars, or more than three eighths of the total value of all cotton products of the United States, which the census returns at \$267,981,724. All the goods mentioned are coarse or medium fabrics. An examination of the list of products above will show that the quantity of fine goods is comparatively unimportant. Yet New England manufactures nearly eleven twelfths of all such goods produced in the country, and but a small amount is imported from abroad,— for the average annual value of cotton goods of all classes imported into the country is but little more than ten million dollars. Thus we see that the great demand for cotton fabrics is for coarse and medium textiles; and the New England manufacturers are well advised in devoting themselves to the production of such goods. It has been suggested of late that this branch of the manufacture would be abandoned gradually by northern mills, in favor of the South, while New England would devote itself to fine spinning. Such a course would be a yielding of a great market for a small one, and it is safe to predict that New England will not adopt it unless compelled to do so.

There are some peculiarities of the business of manufacturing cotton goods in the United States, which are particularly noticeable in New England. In England and on the continent of Europe the spinning and weaving of goods are rarely carried on by the same concern; the owners of mills are commonly private persons or partnerships; and the system of comparatively small mills is nearly universal. In all these respects the practice in New England is different. Cotton manufacturing is carried on almost entirely by corporations. Spinning and weaving are carried on not merely by the same owners but under one roof. And while there is a multitude of small factories, not only are there single mills in New England equipped with as many as 60,000 spindles and 1,200 looms, but in cases where a corporation has been successful and has established a reputation it extends its operations by building other factories. Some of the largest mills in the world are to be found in New England. The Amoskeag at Manchester, New Hampshire, undoubtedly consumes more cotton and employs more hands than any other manufacturing company, and the Wamsutta at New

Bedford probably surpasses, in these respects, any single establishment of Great Britain or Europe. The divorce of spinning and weaving abroad seems to be a higher development of the industry than the union of the two trades. At all events it is so regarded by Englishmen. But the American system has given excellent results and there seems to be no reason to anticipate a change. It is true that there have been several large mills erected in recent years for the sole purpose of spinning cotton yarns. But their products are not sold extensively to weavers, but are used by the makers of knit goods, or for doubling and twisting into sewing cotton, or for covering electric wire. There are very few mills in New England which weave only. The largest number of such establishments is in Pennsylvania, where yarn is bought for the manufacture of special fabrics.

The cotton manufacture exhibits a strong tendency to concentration in certain regions. If one goes back to the early history of the industry he will see that the first factories were placed on the banks of streams whose water power was available for moving the machinery, and that in the case of almost every large town built up by cotton spinning its beginning was the utilization of a water power. Lowell and Lawrence and Manchester and Nashua on the Merrimac; Fall River on the river which gives its name to the city; Biddeford on the Saco; Lewiston on the Androscoggin; Augusta and Waterville on the Kennebec; Woonsocket on the Blackstone; and many manufacturing villages on the small streams of Rhode Island and Connecticut, give abundant proof of the truth of this assertion. But this industry has become gradually less and less dependent on water power. In regions where experience showed that cotton spinning could be carried on to the best advantage, steam power was first brought in to supplement that obtained from water wheels, and in the end mills operated exclusively by steam have been built. Only seven of the forty-one companies operating sixty-six cotton mills in Fall River, according to the census of 1890, employed water power at all, and every one of these corporations had steam engines to supplement its water wheels. The largest expansion of the industry during the last ten years has been on and near Buzzard's and Narragansett Bays, in Massachusetts and Rhode Island. There are two chief reasons

for the concentration of the business in this region: accessibility and climate. The cost of bringing coal, cotton, and other supplies to Fall River, New Bedford, Providence, and other manufacturing centers near them is much less than that of carrying the same articles to points in the interior. The fact that the weight of cotton used in Fall River is sixty thousand tons a year, and that of the finished products, which must be carried away for distribution, a nearly equal amount; and that the coal used in the cotton mills alone exceeds 175,000 tons a year; shows how important cheap water transportation is. It is also apparently a fact that the climate of the southern New England shore is better adapted to cotton spinning than that of any other part of the country where the manufacture has been established. A certain amount of moisture in the air is absolutely necessary for the spinning of cotton; and the degree of moisture must be greater for spinning fine yarns than for coarse. While artificial means of introducing moisture in spinning rooms are entirely practicable and successful, and are in general use, yet it seems to be true that the natural climate of the region mentioned is such that less artificial moisture is required than elsewhere. A third reason for the increasing concentration of the industry in the Narragansett Bay region should not be overlooked. The supply of labor is greater, for the simple reason that cotton manufacturing has already been greatly concentrated there.

The chief manufacturing centers of New England are these, arranged according to the number of spindles reported to the census of 1890:

	Spindles.
Fall River, Mass. ....	2,000,525
Lowell, Mass. ....	892,704
New Bedford, Mass. ....	718,820
Lawrence, Mass. ....	635,502
Manchester, N. H. ....	482,660
Lewiston, Maine. ....	289,014

This list does not tell the whole story, since it omits the centers of Rhode Island and Connecticut, but it is not easy to establish the limits of the region in these states where the cotton manufacturing interest is congregated. Mills are scattered thickly over all the region surrounding Providence, Pawtucket, Woonsocket and the valley of the Blackstone generally. Although in no one city or town are to be found as many



spindles as in any one of the Massachusetts cities mentioned above, yet all this part of Rhode Island is filled with cotton factories. To put the case in a somewhat whimsical way, there are more spindles to the square mile in Rhode Island than in any other state.

Fall River is both the largest and the most extreme type of the cotton manufacturing town in the United States. The census reported 36.5 millions of capital employed in manufacturing enterprises in the city, of which 32 millions are engaged in cotton manufacture. Of 22,822 hands employed in all industries cotton employs 19,476. Inasmuch as the total population when the census was taken was 74,398 it appears that more than one in four of all the inhabitants, including children, were actually employed within the cotton mills of the city. Three distinct epochs may be distinguished in the labor history of New England manufacturing towns. In the earliest days the mill hands were drawn from the native population, some of them being residents of the towns where the factories were located, but many also from the surrounding and even more distant regions. Girls from the country went to the town to work for a year or for a longer time, to earn a living and accumulate a small sum of money; and after this was accomplished

they returned home, or having married in the town settled down for life. Then came the period when Englishmen and Irishmen, immigrants in search of work, began to crowd out the natives. In a few years native workers in the mills became few. Finally there was a great influx of French Canadians, who have now displaced a large part of the Europeans. In Lewiston, Lawrence, Lowell, New Bedford, Holyoke, and Fall River there are whole streets where almost every store bears on its sign the name of a French proprietor. On a recent visit to Fall River, the writer, inquiring his way to a certain mill, accosted four persons in a walk of half a mile before finding one who could understand English.

The future of cotton manufacturing in New England is assured. In certain respects its advantages are not equal to those of the South. In the cotton-raising states the price of the staple is lower, in general, and the laws of those states have not restricted hours of labor and otherwise hampered employers and employed. But on the other hand the northern mills are nearer to the wholesale markets and the supply of skilled labor is more abundant. Upon a balance of advantages it does not appear that New England is too heavily handicapped to render its future a matter of much doubt.

*End of Required Reading for April.*

## WAITING.

BY W. J. BAKER.

The sun his crimson heralds decks with gold,  
They then all day must wait, but sober drest,  
Till at the eve again his fancies' hest,  
On gorgeous shields, most pompously is scrolled.

In spring pink orchard blooms are much extolled,  
But 'neath green shades, through heats, we silent rest;  
On autumn boughs the red-cheeked apples nest,  
And glad tongues praise the harvest store, full rolled.

The mating birds their songs and cries sweet fling,  
In summer months they scarce attune, so stilled,  
Ere winter comes they flock loud twittering.

When thou wert born ecstatic hearts rejoiced;  
What if unnoticed now you toil, pain-filled,  
So at the last celestial welcome 's voiced?

## PERSONAL RECOLLECTIONS OF RUTHERFORD B. HAYES.

BY HON. WILLIAM MCKINLEY, JR.

Governor of Ohio.

I MET Rutherford B. Hayes for the first time, in June, 1861, at Camp Chase, near Columbus, Ohio. He was major of the 23d Ohio Volunteer Infantry, then being organized for service at the front. Associated with him was William S. Rosecrans, the colonel of the regiment, and Stanley Matthews, the lieutenant colonel. Rosecrans subsequently became major-general, commanding one of the largest departments of the army. Stanley Matthews afterwards went to the United States Senate from Ohio, and became Justice of the Supreme Court of the United States. At this time Hayes was thirty-nine years of age, slight of build, erect in bearing, and with the same sunny face with which in later years the American people became familiar.

I was a private in Co. E of his regiment—a company organized in Poland, Mahoning County, made up largely of the young men who attended the academy at that place. None of us had ever known, up to that time, anything of Major Hayes. Because of our different stations I could know little of him, and whatever impression I had of him then came from observing him on duty and off as occasions permitted. His manner was so generous and his relations with the men were so kind, and yet always dignified, that he won my heart almost from the start. I think it is safe to say that he was the most beloved officer in the regiment from the beginning to the end of the war. He was ever looking after the care and well-being of the thousand young men who came from different parts of the state, strangers to him, with no military experience, and no experience in taking care of themselves.

An incident occurred at Camp Chase in which Major Hayes deeply impressed the regiment. When the arms were issued to the regiment they were found to be of the old-fashioned sort, and the regiment—a proud one—insisted it should have the best arms then known to military science. When the regiment was marched up to the arsenal it flatly refused to receive the arms and marched back to the company quar-

ters. Stanley Matthews and Major Hayes went from company to company addressing them as to their duty in the premises, and advising against the insubordination thus displayed. I recall very well portions of Major Hayes' speech made at our company quarters. He spoke of the early wars of the country and the very rude weapons which our fathers carried—the old flint-lock, etc.,—and then said that after all it was not the weapon with which we fought but the cause for which we fought that should be uppermost in the mind of every soldier; that we could best show our patriotism by using the guns, no matter how poor, which the government of the United States was able to give us. His best qualities were yet to be disclosed when with his regiment he was confronted by real dangers. Whether on the march, or in camp, or in battle, he never thought of himself until he had seen that his regiment had all the comforts which the service and circumstances permitted.

The first battle in which I saw him was at Carnifex Ferry, in West Virginia, one of the earliest battles of the war. That was a small affair compared with the many in which he and the regiment were subsequently engaged; but he showed at that time great self-possession with great courage and enthusiasm. From that time he had the supreme confidence of all his soldiers. He was soon promoted to the colonelcy of the regiment, which he continued to command until he was made a brigadier-general and put in command of a brigade. He did me the honor to make me one of his staff officers in the first brigade he commanded, which was made up of Ohio and West Virginia troops. The closer I was brought to him the more I was impressed with his great qualities both of head and heart; simple and straightforward in everything; pure in speech, never indulging in a story of questionable character, and never engaging in conversation which was not elevating. I do not remember, in the four years I was associated with him, to have heard him in conversation utter an oath.

Hayes took desperate chances in battle. He seemed like one inspired. His quiet nature at once changed. He permitted nothing to stand in his way. He never sought security, and he often recklessly exposed himself. He never asked his men to go where he would not lead; and he was always in the lead. He was wounded at South Mountain, and it was with the greatest difficulty that he was induced to leave the field; and he did not go until loss of blood made it imperative. He was carried back to an improvised hospital in an old barn or stable. His first solicitude was that his wife should know the exact nature of his injury so that she should not be alarmed by the exaggerated statements that might go out from the newspaper correspondents. He dictated a message for her to Colonel Markbreit, who carried it to Washington, which was the nearest telegraph station, telling her of his true condition. It is needless to say that she came on at once and nursed him until he was able to be brought to Ohio. He remained away but a short while,—indeed he returned before he was fit.

Speaking of Colonel Markbreit reminds me of an incident: When Hayes entered the service in 1861, Markbreit, a young German lawyer, was his partner in Cincinnati. Hayes left Markbreit to take care of the office, and Markbreit sacredly promised to do so. At the battle of Carnifex Ferry, to which I have already referred, Hayes saw at some distance young Markbreit approaching at the head of a company. The latter was a striking figure—handsome and soldierly in his bearing. Hayes expressed great surprise to find that the young man whom he had a few months before left in Cincinnati to take care of the interests and office of the firm should thus early have deserted his post and come to the front, and that they should meet on the same field. Surprised as Hayes was, I shall never forget the delight with which he greeted young Markbreit, and the young man's pleasure that he was so promptly forgiven for having run away from the law office. Colonel Markbreit is now chief proprietor of the Cincinnati *Volksblatt*, one of the leading German newspapers of the country.

Hayes' affection for his family was tender and noteworthy. Whenever he was so situated where it was at all safe, his noble wife with some of the little ones would submit to all sorts of discomforts to be with him. Mrs.

Hayes was as popular with the regiment as the colonel himself, and demonstrated those great qualities which shone so brightly when she became the mistress of the White House.

Hayes was elected to Congress while the war was still on, but he declined to accept office until the surrender. He remained in Congress until he was elected governor of Ohio—the first time in 1867. His political contests in Ohio always resulted successfully, but they were very sharp, and his majorities small. It was not because Hayes lacked popular strength that his contests were close, but it so happened that his candidacies were always at times when great public questions were submitted to the people, there being great division among the people as to those questions. In the years 1867 and 1869 there were the ratifications of the 14th and 15th amendments to the Constitution, against the adoption of which there still remained very much prejudice. In his last campaign for governor in 1875 he was met by the wild clamor for irredeemable money and the demand for the repeal of the Resumption Act. There was some division at that time, even among Republicans, as to the wisdom of resumption and of the then foreshadowed financial policy of the Republican party. It fell to his lot to lead in that great fight for honest money, and he did it well and ably.

Then, besides this, his opponents happened always to be the strongest men on the Democratic side in the state. His first opponent for gubernatorial honors was Allen G. Thurman, so long a distinguished member of the United States Senate. His second opponent was George H. Pendleton, another distinguished Ohioan, who served his state in both branches of Congress, and who represented his government in one of the most important foreign missions. His third opponent was William Allen, who had been a United States senator. The last great campaign for governor doubtless had much to do with giving him the nomination for the presidency in 1876. That pointed to him; but it should be remembered that it was only the great character and purity of life which had distinguished him from his boyhood that made his nomination possible and desirable. There were no flaws in his character, no stain upon his life. The presidential election, like all of Mr. Hayes' gubernatorial elections, was close. He bore himself in the severe struggle following the election with great dignity

and patriotism and integrity. It was a great crisis, not only in his life but that of the nation. No man could have done better than he did in that crisis, and no thoughtful man as he recurs to it will attribute to Mr. Hayes any but the purest and best and most patriotic motives.

His administration of the great office of president is too familiar to the readers of *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* to call for more than passing notice. It was a pure and lofty administration, and made Republican success possible in 1880. He displeased some of his party friends, but the masses of the people generally approved. It is noteworthy that he surrounded himself with a Cabinet of the strongest men, and suffered no loss from the contrast. It took a great man to do that.

Since laying aside public office twelve years ago, his private life was a daily inspiration. He was a busy man and devoted his time and energies to the uplifting of his fellow-man, making a specialty of educational and philanthropic matters.

While he did not believe an ex-president should be active in partisan politics, Mr. Hayes never lost his interest in public affairs and never abated his faith in Republican principles; and in his own quiet and effective way he did everything in his power to promote the success of the Republican party.

There was one thing he did not neglect, and that was to attend the annual reunion of his old regiment. Ever since the war he was the central figure at these gatherings. The love which his old comrades bore him—those who had seen him in every crisis of the war—was phenomenal and touching.

He was a religious man—generous to all

denominations, and not bigoted. Although not a formal member of any church, he was identified to a notable degree with the Methodist Episcopal church, and he died in the faith of the Christian.

He was at work almost to the day of his death. The Thursday before his death he visited me and discussed the future of the Ohio State University, of which he was an honored and active trustee. He had this institution much at heart and had great plans for its future.

His home life was beautiful. During the life of his beloved wife, his house at Spiegel Grove, near Fremont, Ohio, was the center of the best social, educational, and religious influences. It was a hospitable home, and the doors ever swung wide open to receive the humblest who chose to call.

I can recall no more completed life than his. He was not a brilliant man as we speak of brilliant men, but he was a wise man—always safe, and always in touch with the best thought of the people. He was steady in thought and purpose. It has been said by some of his critics that he was not a great man. His own life and achievements best answer that. Without self seeking he was almost continually in the public service from 1861. He administered the greatest offices, national and state. He filled with great integrity and ability every position to which he was called. He measured up to every duty which was imposed upon him.

If I were called to single out the great secret of the success of Rutherford B. Hayes, I would say it rested in his integrity of character, his untiring industry, and his level-headedness.

## REMINISCENCES OF JAMES G. BLAINE.

BY E. JAY EDWARDS.

ONE evening in the midsummer of 1891 a gentleman having some messages to deliver to Mr. Blaine sought the secretary at the White House, whither Mr. Blaine had gone to learn the evening report of the condition of President Garfield. This friend did not find Mr. Blaine with the other members of the Cabinet, who walking with saddened step away from the White House gave suggestion that the news from the sick cham-

ber was such that day as to cause sorrow. One of the Cabinet officers informed the gentleman that he believed Mr. Blaine was somewhere upon the White House grounds, probably walking in the seclusion which the White Lot at that hour of the evening afforded. Thither the gentleman went. The night was a glorious one. The moon was at the full and its rays were reflected in the waters of the Potomac, which skirted the



southern boundary of the White Lot. A cooling breeze tempered the heat of the day. Silence prevailed, nor was there any sign of life excepting the feeble light in one of the upper chambers of the White House.

A brief search brought Mr. Blaine into view. He stood bare-headed, so revealed that the then glorious crown of iron-gray hair was noticeable in the moonlight, and he seemed to be gazing away, lost in thought, at the distant Potomac. When he heard footsteps he turned, recognized his friend and greeted him with almost sad cordiality, and then he said as though the interruption had not confused his thought, "I was thinking of the pathos of fame." And then he turned, glancing quickly at the light in the window of the room adjoining that in which Garfield lay upon his bed of pain.

Mr. Blaine was not often thus solemn and sentimental, excepting when in the privacy of his family. He was accustomed to utter political truths with epigrammatic power and sometimes with something like cruelty in the suggestion of them. Only a few days before he thus spoke of the pathos of fame he had said to a public man of influence enough to justify some claim upon him for favor, "Politics is not gratitude, it is power." A week before, the secretary had suggested to the members of Garfield's Cabinet that for the first time in the history of the government a certain provision of the Constitution would justify an action of mighty consequence. He referred to that clause which provides that in case of the inability of the president to perform the duties of his office, then the vice president shall exercise them. And Mr. Blaine had suggested informally that the Cabinet knew and the country knew that Garfield was totally incapacitated and would be for many weeks, if he lived so long, from performing his official duties. In case of war or other extraordinary emergency his hand and his brain were powerless. Therefore Mr. Blaine suggested that it might possibly be the duty of the Cabinet to summon Vice President Arthur to undertake to exercise the functions of the office, and he was clearly of the opinion that such act would be established not only as necessary but as constitutional.

The attorney general, Mr. MacVeagh, while not questioning the constitutionality of the act, declared that while it might be lawful to put General Arthur in, there was no way

made plain by which he could be put out if General Garfield should recover.

Mr. Blaine instantly yielded. He saw the force of this suggestion, and at the same time he reserved the right to call upon Vice President Arthur in case an extraordinary emergency arose. Yet Mr. Blaine was statesman enough to say after the death of General Garfield, "It is perhaps fortunate that no such emergency did arise."

Blaine did not realize until the convention of 1880 that he was to be one of the American immortals of his generation. When his following in his party was demonstrated to be great enough to make him so formidable a candidate for the presidential nomination that although his friends were not quite able to bring the prize to him, nevertheless they were able to bring to General Grant his first defeat, and to name the candidate, then Mr. Blaine perceived that he was not merely of this generation, but his was a name which in the generations to come would be remembered, and that his career would be conspicuous in American history of the first century of the government.

He knew enough of our political life to understand that he had conquered immortality, and he said to his intimate friends in the summer of 1880, "I presume that I shall not now be forgotten," and they knew that he referred to that extraordinary achievement by which he, without patronage to bestow, without exertion on his part, with no canvass directed by him, was able four years after his first defeat for the nomination to dictate the presidency to his party, and to dictate it against the influences which were making the canvass for the giant of the Republican organization, General Grant.

Those who were with Mr. Blaine during the spring of 1881 were impressed with the conviction that he regarded the presidency as lost to him, and that he had determined upon another career. No man in public life at that time seemed so carried away with the fascinations of statesmanship or political activity as Mr. Blaine did with the project of conquering by peaceful conference and through the strategy of acceptable diplomacy, the nations of the American continents, so that sympathy and mutual obligations should bind them together.

Mr. Blaine's reading of political history during his senatorial term was exhaustive, and had revealed to him that with the ex-

ception of the military heroes and of Lincoln the greatest names in the list of American statesmen were found among those who never held that exalted office. He delighted to talk of Alexander Hamilton with men whose reading had been wide, and he declared with an enthusiasm which he imparted to those who heard him, that Hamilton's achievement as the creator of the Constitution and his marvelous handling of the public debt and creation of the financial system of the country had been matched by the achievement of no president.

He was fond, too, of speaking of Webster's speech in which the Constitution as created by Hamilton was expounded. Lincoln's masterly handling of the slavery problem, leading up to the Emancipation Proclamation, and Grant's military service made up in Mr. Blaine's opinion the conspicuous achievements in American history from the time of the adoption of the Constitution.

It was suggested to the friends with whom he talked that he, too, was dazzled with a very proper and splendid ambition to develop and to maintain that policy of friendly intercourse and mutual relationship which the assassination of Garfield prevented, but which he entered the State Department in 1888 to renew.

Those who saw much of Mr. Blaine in 1884 were satisfied that the ambition to be president had been only partially rekindled. It burned like a feeble struggling spark rather than a great devouring flame such as characterized his ambition and his efforts in 1876. There was a momentary cry of passion and pain after his defeat, and then he took up his pen again as quietly, as naturally, as though the interruption of that campaign was no greater mental disturbance than that which would have been caused by the coming of a friend to visit him.

Men who knew Mr. Blaine in his private as well as his public life were made aware long ago of the causes which led to misunderstanding of him, and the reasons why a latent suspicion did exist in the minds of so many Americans that he was not controlled always by the higher elements of character. Mr. Blaine was of two natures; free from restraint among his friends, it seemed at times as though he forgot that he was not a boy. An illustration of this occurred at the Fifth Avenue Hotel in New York a few years ago. Mr. Blaine was there with some members of his family. A family friend who was a musi-

cian called, and she no sooner came into the parlor than Mr. Blaine with boyish spirits seized her, danced her to the piano, and made her play selection after selection from one of the comic operas. He was a perfect kitten, as one who saw him afterwards said, at that time. Men who knew him only as dignified, somewhat imperious and unyielding, would have been amazed had they seen him frolicking around that parlor and listening with delight to the operatic melodies. He was to have had an important meeting with politicians that evening, but instead of that he ran away with his family and their friend to a theater where "The Mascotte" was sung, and he sat concealed in a box, seemingly fascinated by the performance. He was passionately fond of music of all kinds. When the politicians found that he had overlooked an engagement and gone to a comic opera, some of them were angry.

At the time a curious craze swept over New York for witnessing public walking matches, Mr. Blaine was at the Fifth Avenue Hotel where politicians expected to meet him. Instead of seeing them, his boyish impulse carried him to the Madison Square Garden. He went alone, and in the vast throng was not recognized. When he came forth from the building, he started to return to the hotel by the north side of Madison Square. A curiously sweet-toned hand organ was grinding out a sort of public vespers service. The writer happened to be passing at that time, and being surprised to see the organ-grinder with a solitary auditor, glanced at this man who was thus entertained and was amazed to find that it was Mr. Blaine, who seemed filled with delight with the music. He had been giving himself up to this seemingly trivial and boyish enjoyment, heedless apparently that he might thereby give offense to politicians who were waiting for him. In fact he did greatly wound the feelings of one man upon that occasion. Politicians could not understand such impulses as these, and Mr. Blaine knew it and he therefore never made any attempt to furnish explanation. Yet when his life is honestly written, some of his disappointments and some of the enmities which he created will be traced to this disposition.

In the sketches of Mr. Blaine's career that were published after his death, scarcely any worthy mention was made of his extraordinary faculty as a political manager. That it

was which caused him to have something of contempt, doubtless, for the political managers developed in the later years of his life. In the campaign of 1879 in Maine, which was, perhaps, the most desperate one he ever fought in that state, he filled with amazement men like Garfield, General Hawley, Ellis H. Roberts, and other Republicans of national fame who went to Maine to help him. His campaigns were no luxurious battles. He lived upon a sleeping car much of the time. One day he was in Portland, for instance, overwhelming the local managers with his enthusiasm, his attention to the most trivial detail, and perhaps the next morning he was in Houlton, at the eastern boundary of the state, summoning the local managers to him, detecting every weak spot and with marvelous resource fortifying it. He fought his battle something as Sheridan fought his military campaigns, and if in civil life any comparison is to be furnished with Sheridan's traditional ride from Winchester, it was Blaine's campaign in Maine in 1879. He knew how to play the gentle and entirely proper demagogue, and yet insincerity was not behind the grasp of hand and friendly greeting which delighted men in the rural districts of Maine. As the commander of that battle Blaine knew every art of approach, when to mask his batteries and when to reveal them. His energy was a marvel to those who saw it. That is the way in which Mr. Blaine fought as an active campaign manager all his battles, and this accounts for quite as much of his strength in Maine as does that vague quality which has been called personal magnetism.

No man knew better than Mr. Blaine that he was defeated for the presidency because of secret enemies whom he had made, many of them unconsciously. He himself ascribed his defeat in 1876 mainly to an enemy whom he had made of an Indiana politician, General Tyner. The story has never been fully told, but it is a part of history and may be proper here to narrate.

When Mr. Blaine was a candidate a third time for the speakership, he entered into correspondence with General Tyner, then a member of Congress from Indiana and now assistant postmaster-general. In that correspondence Mr. Blaine intimated that he would if elected speaker appoint General Tyner chairman of the committee on post offices and post roads. Later in an interview with Mr. Blaine in Washington General Tyner understood

him to repeat this promise verbally. It was a post General Tyner coveted. The press dispatches at that time announced that Mr. Blaine would make Mr. Dawes, now a senator from Massachusetts, chairman of the ways and means committee, and General Tyner chairman of the post office committee.

Mr. Blaine was elected speaker and when his committees were announced, Mr. Packer of Pennsylvania was found to be at the head of the post office committee, while Mr. Tyner had been placed on the appropriations committee under General Garfield's chairmanship. General Tyner was keenly wounded, and he was amazed to find that in the list given by Mr. Blaine of his committee appointments to the *Washington Star* just before he read the announcement to the House, the name of General Tyner appeared as chairman of the post office committee. It was plain therefore, that Mr. Blaine had changed that appointment at the last moment. A few days later General Tyner received a letter from Mr. Blaine in which the speaker expressed sorrow that General Tyner should have been grieved over the committee appointments, and added that he (Mr. Blaine) regarded the change as really a promotion. He said that Mr. Colfax when speaker had sent for him and offered him either the chairmanship of the post office committee or a place on the appropriations, and that he chose the appropriations as the higher office and that his success if he had had any as a member of Congress, was due to the opportunity that committee had given him.

General Tyner wrote in reply that Mr. Blaine must have surmised that he was disappointed, since he had never expressed disappointment to any one, and he added that the difference between Mr. Blaine's own experience and his was this, that Colfax had offered Mr. Blaine his choice and then kept faith with him, whereas the speaker had told General Tyner that the chairmanship of the post office committee would be his, and then without a word had broken faith.

A week later General Tyner was summoned by Mr. Blaine to the speaker's room. When they met Mr. Blaine expressed great regret that General Tyner should still feel annoyed, and he added that General Tyner was under misapprehension when he thought that the chairmanship of the post office committee had been unqualifiedly offered him. Then oc-

curred a most dramatic scene, related to the writer by General Tyner himself.

General Tyner said to Mr. Blaine that he had proof that the chairmanship had been offered to him in Mr. Blaine's own letters, and that he had those letters with him. Mr. Blaine asked to see them; General Tyner drew them from his pocket. Something in Mr. Blaine's manner caused suspicion to enter his heart. He thought that the speaker meant to get possession of the letters, and thus take from him written evidence of the promise. General Tyner's own words to the writer may be quoted:

"I said to Mr. Blaine that his manner surprised me, and that he seemed strangely eager to get possession of the letters, but I added that I was not afraid of him and I then threw the letters upon the table, telling him that they were there for him to look at, but if he made any effort to retain them I should take them from him by force if necessary, and I would have done it. Mr. Blaine then changed his manner and made no other effort to get the letters. I then said to him, 'You are to be a candidate for the presidential nomination in 1876. I understand why you broke your word with me. You made Mr. Packer chairman of that committee because you knew he had married a favorite niece of Simon Cameron, and you hoped thereby to get Cameron's favor, but I tell you I shall be a delegate to that convention; I shall go there to prevent your nomination, and I shall use every power that I

have to prevent it, and I think I shall be successful.' With that I left the speaker in his room."

In the Cincinnati convention of 1876 General Tyner appeared at the head of the Indiana delegation. That group of men held the key to the situation. When they rose to retire from the hall for consultation two of Mr. Blaine's representatives went to Tyner and said to him, "General Tyner, Indiana can nominate Blaine or prevent his nomination. We are authorized to say that if the delegation will come to Blaine Senator Morton may be made minister to England and you may have a Cabinet post." And Tyner hearing this temptation and bearing in mind what he had said to Blaine resisted it and swung the Indiana delegation to Mr. Hayes, thereby nominating him.

There were other causes which led to the defeat of Mr. Blaine in 1876, but they would have been powerless but for these things which are now first told.

The incident while of historical importance, General Tyner still preserving the letters, is also of value as revealing what the weaker side of Mr. Blaine's character as a politician was; and doubtless it was his knowledge of this which led him after his failure in 1876 to gratify his overpowering ambition to become in a measure indifferent to the presidency and to aim to make another career in the quieter but quite as brilliant field of diplomacy.

## CAN PRACTICAL NEWSPAPER WORK BE TAUGHT IN COLLEGE?

BY ALBERT F. MATTHEWS.

THE belief has become general that colleges and universities cannot give successful instruction in the profession of journalism, or newspaper work as its followers better like to call it. Recently a well-known Paris correspondent has advocated a school of journalism, but his suggestions have been largely toward the training of foreign correspondents and his plan of teaching has been outlined only vaguely. It has contemplated instruction, or, rather, an examination by newspaper men as to the general and special information possessed by the applicant for admission to ranks of journalism, and as to his special fitness for the

calling. Journalists by such a system would be admitted to practice much as lawyers are admitted to the bar. Preliminary instruction would be obtained under some plan of supervision by a committee of journalists rather than by a well-defined system of instruction in college. The impossibility of obtaining the desired training in college is emphasized by the scheme of instruction as suggested by this plan.

The few attempts that have been made in teaching newspaper work in colleges in this country have not been satisfactory, and in more than one instance have met with ridicule from the newspapers. In the most suc-



cessful and best conducted newspapers and with many of the best known editors the belief obtains that the only way to learn to become a successful newspaper man is to learn from experience. This colleges and universities cannot furnish because colleges and universities do not publish newspapers. But universities do not build railroads, yet they graduate railroad engineers. Universities do not conduct mining operations, yet they give diplomas to mining engineers. They graduate electrical experts, chemical experts, physicians with practically no experience, as well as preachers and lawyers lacking the same essential thing. The instruction in all these branches of learning is almost entirely theoretical. A railroad on paper may be run through or around the campus with one or two bridges to be constructed and two or three embankments to be excavated. A mine may be operated in theory under an adjoining hill; some experiments in chemical analysis may be undertaken; the would-be physician may write out prescriptions for theoretical cases and tell an actual physician what he would do in certain emergencies; the young preacher may hold services in a few country chapels, or the young lawyer may argue cases in the moot court—but the one thing they lack is experience. Our great universities have allied themselves with all the great professions except one, newspaper work, the most influential of all in its immediate effect upon the masses of men. They stop full short at giving instruction in this profession because they cannot teach it through experience.

I think that any well-equipped newspaper man will agree with me that newspaper work may be divided properly into four departments, reporting, exchange work, editorial work, and editorial writing. Executive work, such as assigning certain men to do certain tasks, making up the forms of the newspaper, supervising the character of the matter to be printed, and the like, may not be included, because in every newspaper standards differ and are as much the part of the individual character of the newspaper, to be learned only by experience, as, for example, are the details of bookkeeping in a mercantile establishment. Few business houses keep their cash books or journals alike and yet the same principle underlies their system. So it is with newspaper work.

Whatever the individual methods may be, newspaper work—that is, the task of filling a certain number of pages with certain kinds of matter from day to day or week to week—may be classified in the four departments I have mentioned. The direct question is, can reporting, can exchange work, can editorial work, can editorial writing be so taught in theory and in partial practice as to make it worth while, and to result in the quick advancement of such persons as have had this theoretical and preliminary instruction over those who have not had it?

Can reporting be taught in college? Let us suppose that in a university in or near a large city, such as Harvard, Columbia, the University of Pennsylvania, Chicago University, and several others, like Yale, Brown, Cornell, an instructor has a dozen young men, more or less, about him who desire to go into journalism as an active career and would like special preparatory training for their life's work. It should be recognized at the outset that nine out of every ten newspaper men are reporters of one kind or another, not editors. Let the instructor therefore become a city editor for the time being. Now, a most important department in reporting is that of police news. Each newspaper keeps a reporter at police headquarters to watch for fires, accidents, arrests of various kinds, and other news that centers there. Whenever it is practicable the "headquarters man" gathers the news himself and without assistance from the main office. Would it be impracticable for an instructor in a university to make arrangements with the police in the city where he is giving instruction to have his young men do duty in turn at police headquarters just as the men from newspapers do? Could he not require these young men to write the news of the day as recorded and obtained there precisely as the actual reporters do? Could he not compare their efforts the next day, or that same day in the cases of afternoon publications, with that printed and written for the daily newspapers by men actively engaged in the work? Could he not demand that the men on duty should be held responsible for all the news, as is the case with real newspaper men? And would not all this work to much advantage to the amateur reporter?

So much for one branch of reporting. We must remember, however, that it is in general reporting that the highest skill is shown.

There are three things essential in general reporting; first, to know what news is, next, how to get it, and last, how to write it. These three are mentioned in the order of their importance. I ask, is it not reasonable that by studying newspapers constantly for several months, or it may be for a year or more, with the aid of an instructor, the reporter aspirant should expect to learn with more or less good judgment what news really is, why certain kinds of news are desirable and others not? Surely the difference between important news and interesting news could be made plain. It would not take long to instill into the mind of the pupil that unusual and remarkable phenomena of nature, such as the Charleston earthquake, the Johnstown flood, or a great epidemic, take first rank in news and that national politics and national affairs come next. The instructor could easily point out that possibly with the exception of New York City, where no man knows his neighbor, neighborhood news is more desirable than news of a similar character from a distance. A tragedy or a ceremonial at home is worth two of the same kind from abroad.

By assigning men, as a city editor does from day to day, to report events in a city, such as a political meeting, a great parade, a trial in court, or to prepare special articles and so on through the long variety of newspaper tasks, is it not possible to teach the student how general news is obtained? Would he not get a moderately clear idea of what news really is and the way to get it?

Writing news for publication is another matter. Colleges and universities are supposed to teach something about the expression of ideas in writing. As a rule they teach the old essay style. There must be a long and general introduction, a gradual approach to the subject, like a hunter stealing up to his game, and the reader must never be shocked by a beginning at the beginning. The old style of writing did well enough for the easy-going times of the last century and the earlier part of this. Nowadays no one writes in that way. This may be seen every day whether one reads a President's Message or a realistic short story. We have grown past the old style of writing, just as we have grown past old-time business methods and manners of the old school. By teaching the direct, or newspaper style of writing, surely the pupil would lose nothing

and the college would take a step in advance. Equipped with the ability to write forcibly and directly and by the constant comparison of their work with the daily standard of actual work of others in the newspapers may we not say that it is practical to give instruction in reporting to young men and young women who are still undergraduates?

Take another department of newspaper work, exchange reading. It is a fact that most newspaper men know almost nothing about newspapers outside of their own town. They are generally ignorant of the scope of their profession and the ideas and changes going on in its development in other places than their own. It is not unreasonable to say that a three months' study of newspapers of other cities, in clipping articles of general and special interest, in order that a supposed newspaper may have sufficient literary and other matter on hand to fill up the forms, piece out columns, and to be of use in every case of emergency, would not only give the student facility in exchange work itself, but would make him broader and more capable as a well-rounded newspaper man.

As to editorial work proper, that is, the acceptance or rejection of matter for its news or literary qualities, its preparation for the printer, its improvement of diction, its condensation and often its elaboration, the writing of head lines, the avoidance of libels, the verification of statements, etc., this much may be said: Publishers regard this kind of skill the most difficult to obtain. Expert men at this work are constantly in demand and are constantly getting more pay. Would it not be practicable by passing a clipping around a class and by asking each man to write a head line of certain length and limits, to get some real benefit by comparative methods under the critical analysis of the instructor? In editing copy the students would constantly be learning the right use of words. For example, they might learn not to say, "Mr. Williams was awarded the contract," or that "Mrs. Jones was granted a divorce." They might be taught to avoid saying "party" for "person" and that the word "lurid" does not mean red, and hundreds of other desirable things about the use of words. They might learn something of the symmetry of paragraphing and might become familiar with marking manuscripts for printers. Matters of good taste could be taught and skill could be acquired in telling in twenty letters, the aver-

age length of a head line, the news of a long article. By editing the copy of those who are studying to become reporters or, having procured by arrangement some of the flimsy copy discarded by real newspapers for lack of room, by editing the actual copy of telegraphic news that comes into newspaper offices the student would make a vast stride into the details of his profession.

Editorial writing is the most difficult of all branches of newspaper work to teach. Certainly not more than one newspaper man in ten has an aptitude for it. But by requiring the advanced student to comment day after day upon topics uppermost in public attention and by comparing his work with that appearing in the newspapers the editorial style might be cultivated, certainly to some advantage in those who have natural skill for such writing.

It therefore seems to me to be feasible to teach practical newspaper work in college. It is practicable, too, I think, to make it a four years' course. By way of leading up to it the student should have the best instruction in English and in English literature. He should know German well enough to speak it if he would become a reporter in the very front rank in a large city. A similar knowledge of Italian and French would be of value to him. He should also have some knowledge of as many sciences as possible, and obtain as much general information as he can. In fact, all branches of study, almost without exception, may have a direct bearing on newspaper work. For example, the writer knows an amateur astronomer from whose pen publishers are always anxious to obtain matter. He knows a geographer who adds thousands of dollars to his income each year by writing on the subject. He knows an entomologist who brings his subject close to the life of the people, and a ship constructor for whose writing there is always a demand.

After two years of preparation actual instruction in newspaper work might be begun. There should be a year given to work in reporting such as I have outlined and the second year might be devoted to the other departments of the work. In addition to this a course of lectures on the law of libel might be arranged in universities where there is a law school. It would be of value also that the student should learn enough of stenog-

raphy to take verbatim two or three hundred words of a speech or an interview where quotation of exact language is desirable. Telegraphy and typewriting would also be useful, but not necessary. But what ought to be essential is some practical knowledge of printing. The newspaper man ought to know the difference between an em dash and a small cap letter. He should know type, spacing, and the details of practical printing. He should be able to tell, for example, the best form for arranging tabular matter.

I am free to say that as a result of all this study and instruction I do not think a degree should be granted. The chair in the university should be one of practical newspaper work and not of journalism. And only to those of the class who have shown that they really would become successful newspaper men or women and a credit to the institution from which they are sent out should a simple certificate be given saying that they have had instruction in practical newspaper work and are commended to editors and publishers in the belief that they will become in time skillful, accurate, and trustworthy members of the profession. To those and to the others of the class who get no certificate, a degree of bachelor of literature or bachelor of science, such as is usually bestowed on those who have completed a general course in literature or science, should be given.

The university that first allies itself with the great profession of newspaper work may congratulate itself on the opportunity of getting close to the masses of men, of being able to act directly on them, exerting in a score of ways forces that universities most desire to use. By securing a representation in various newspapers of the land a university may be sure that its interests will always be looked after and that higher education will receive fuller and more considerate attention in public prints. And as to the effect on the young man or woman who shall have received this instruction? The first effect will be to spare him or her six months, perhaps, of hard knocks in learning rudiments of the work under discouragements that have made many of us sick or greatly discouraged. The next effect should be a quick advance in the profession akin to that usually made by the college-bred man in other professions, whether it be law, medicine, theology, or engineering.

## THE HAWAIIAN ISLANDS.

BY ARTHUR ALLEN BLACK.

RISING out of the Pacific Ocean like huge mountains, but a little more than two thousand miles from San Francisco, is a group of islands whose origin can be sought only in the volcanic disturbances of the remote past, and whose proud distinction is the maintenance of the only government and nation in the north Pacific independent of the powers of Europe or Asia. The location of the twelve islands and possibly something of the people were known to the Spaniards for a century preceding what may be termed the rediscovery of the country by Cook in 1778, at which time they were called by Captain Cook the Sandwich Islands. This name has given place to that used by the natives and they are now more properly known as the Hawaiians.

In all there are twelve islands. Eight of them have been inhabited at different times but the present population is largely confined to the six principal islands of the group,—Hawaii, Oahu, Maui, Kauai, Molokai, and Lanai. Craters, which long since ceased to flow, are to be seen throughout the islands, and much of the soil, both untilled and under cultivation, has an understrata of lava. On the island of Hawaii earthquakes and volcanic eruptions have frequently occurred up to within recent years, and there are to be found many square miles of barren lavas. The extinct volcanoes are made much of by the natives, and a visit to Hawaii without having seen something of her physical deformations would lack much that is of real interest.

Up to 1795 feudalism had been the only system of government in all the islands. There had been no supreme power, no centralized authority, and the reign of feudal chiefs over the people had confined the altogether uncivilized population to the narrow limits of servitude and drudgery. The rise of feudal power and the development of the immortal law of the "survival of the fittest" led to the conquest of the entire group in 1795 and the establishment of a crude monarchical system of government having for its head the victorious chief who styled himself King Kamehameha I. In the year 1819 the

son of Kamehameha, having succeeded to the throne, many provisions of the feudal system were restricted, the sacred rites and privileges of former chiefs abolished, and the rights of women guaranteed by a decree making them the social equals of men. In the following year Christianity was for the first time introduced among the people. The progress of the kingdom and its people advanced rapidly from this time. Hitherto there had been no common property in land which had been considered to be, as it was in fact, subject entirely to the absolute proprietorship of king and chiefs. The propagation of Christianity and the freedom of the people from the oppression of feudal chiefs contributed to the destruction of heathenism and uncivilized life, made possible a higher civilization and better natural development, and stimulated continuous national growth. Succeeding years witnessed the spread of the Christian religion, the death of the king and queen in 1823, followed by a period of foreign intervention for nearly twenty years, during which Hawaiian independence was threatened first by the French and then by the English and finally recognized by both Great Britain and France in 1843. In the same year the United States signified its interest in the independence of the Hawaiian group by the appointment of a government representative to reside in Hawaii.

The conduct of government since 1795 up to this time had been by centralized authority, the whole power resting absolutely in the hands of the sovereign. In 1840 Kamehameha III. promulgated the first written constitution of the empire, a measure more in keeping with the civilization and having to do with the tenure of land, courts of justice, the definition and punishment of crimes. The land of the nation, which, since the downfall of feudal power, had been held as the property of the sovereign, was by this new constitution divided into three parts to be owned respectively by the crown, by the government, and by the people. Following the enforcement of this constitution, which signalized the remarkable development of the people during nearly a half century preceded-



ing, there came the consecutive reigns of the descendants of Kamehameha I. and the promulgation of another and better constitution at the hands of Kamehameha V. in 1864. This constitution defined more clearly the prerogatives of the crown, abridged in a significant degree many of its legislative powers, and at the same time vested in an assembly such legislative powers as were in keeping with other provisions of the constitution.

The death of King Kamehameha V. in 1873 broke the line of succession begun by Kamehameha I., the former having died without heirs. In the year following the people elected a king by a general vote as provided by the new constitution, following whose death a year after, came the election by the people of Chief David Kalakaua. His sister, the present dethroned queen of Hawaii, was at this time named as the heir-apparent to the throne. It has been said this king bore no relationship to the royal family, long since extinct at the time of his election to the throne; but there are evidences of a relationship between his mother and a former king. This relationship, however, is so remote that its significance is dwarfed in the native memory by the more recent fact, known to the present generation, of the king's former occupation, that of a dance fiddler, a business hardly consistent with the native ideas of royalty or, indeed, of sovereignty. The events of this reign have a bearing on that portion of Hawaiian history which immediately precedes the late disturbances in the Hawaiian kingdom. It was a reign remarkable in the varied effects which it produced, and, despite its accompanying atrocities, the country and the people continued to make great progress. The beginning was characterized by kingly forbearance and apparently, by thought for the interests of the nation and the people. No good purpose could have been more altered in its course and no man beginning a career of apparent usefulness ever swerved more from the right course than did the new king.

It was in 1876 during the visit of King Kalakaua to the United States that a treaty of reciprocity was made between the two governments, which had a most beneficial effect on the commercial interests of the Hawaiian Islands. It was the signal for investors and capitalists to flock to the little islands in the Pacific and they were not slow to take advantage of the numerous opportu-

nities which were open to men of large means. Where the trend of business had formerly been to stagnation, there began a new life and the business of the empire developed at a rapid rate. No doubt it was this treaty which gave to the commerce and to the business of Hawaii a mighty impetus, but it is none the less true that it introduced a new era of extravagance and luxury. The new king returning home with broader vision now saw clearly what natural advantages were at his command. He soon departed from his original course and began a new career, bold and mercenary. It was not long, however, until there came a period of reaction and depression. With the avowed object of promoting immigration the king made a tour of the world in 1881 and met with some little success. But upon his return home, some two years later, the results of his sight-seeing expedition speedily appeared. Vanity became a master which he neither understood nor cared to overthrow. His desire for display and luxury in imitation of the royal houses of Europe, of which he had taken but a passing glance, were not to be abandoned. The king had been great, but he was to be greater. Not only did luxury abound but vice accompanied it, extravagance of the worst sort prevailed, and the reign developed into a prolonged debauch of the government and the government's possessions. At first it was a small task to obtain money and all that was desired to gratify the new ambition of the king, but the expense of maintaining a sovereign who thought little of spending a million dollars in the construction of a royal palace, or sixty thousand dollars in defraying expenses incident to the burial of a relative, or, indeed, seventy-five thousand dollars in celebrating his own fiftieth birthday anniversary, was too much for the government and the people. The profligacy of the royal house called for larger and more extensive funds. The most wholesale jobbery was carried on in every department of the government. The debauch of the ruler spread to his people; and ultimately came the revolution, which threatened to overturn the government and the king, and by which those results were achieved which have in recent years given to the Hawaiian people the greatest stability and national advantages enjoyed by them at any period in their history.

The new constitution of 1887 was the product of revolution. In the face of a determined population the king returned to his senses and promulgated a constitution founded on that of 1864, but containing provisions much broader and more comprehensive in scope and withal resembling the constitution of the United States. This new constitution was not framed by the king but by the people through their own appointed citizens and members of the courts. The legislative powers of the crown which had been abridged by the constitution of 1864 were now entirely removed and vested in the representatives of the people. By this the crown became an executive. In addition to this provision there was one making the ministry a responsible body and depriving the king of the right to nominate members of the house of nobles. These are the more important events of a reign so interlaced with the development and history of the people that they are necessary for a correct understanding of Hawaiian affairs.

The treaty of reciprocity between the United States and Hawaii made in 1875 gave place in 1887, at the time of the adoption of a new constitution in Hawaii, to a new treaty much broader in its scope and containing provisions clearly beneficial to the islands of the sea by which the United States were granted the concession to occupy exclusively a harbor off the Island Oahu in Pearl River as a coaling station. This concession gave to the United States the chief harbor in the northern Pacific and excited the jealousy of foreign nations.

Through all these years there had been something more than a development in the government. The progress of language and education and that of the Christian religion are so closely associated in the history of the kingdom that they cannot well be considered separate and apart from each other. When Christian missionaries landed in Hawaii in 1820 they found it an uncivilized and uncultivated nation. Its language and its literature were but spoken. In the expressions of thought there were required but twelve letters of the alphabet and these letters, k, l, m, n, p, h, a, e, i, o, u, w, were the only English letters used in reducing the Hawaiian language to writing by the ministers of Christianity. At that time, notwithstanding the existence of nothing but a spoken language, it is said the inhabitants of Hawaii and New

Zealand living nearly five thousand miles apart could, owing to the similarity of their language, understand each other intelligently. Education was then, we may conclude, introduced by Christian missionaries first as an essential for the proper understanding of right living and second as a necessary qualification for the acquirement of national and individual culture; the latter, however, produced the first results. The conditions which exist to-day in the Hawaiian Islands are evidences of their growth and progress. It is the exception when a native cannot read and write his own language, and many of them are capable of speaking their own and the English language as well.

The board of education in 1890 reported 178 schools having in attendance 10,000 pupils. These schools are in the main controlled by the government and exert a wide influence. Of the total number in 1890 there were 36 native schools, 94 English, and 48 independent. Not only is the kingdom, comparatively speaking, an educated one, but it is a Christian one. The dethroned queen herself is a member of the Church of England; of this church there is a resident bishop at Honolulu, and at the same place resides a Roman Catholic bishop. Of the Protestant denomination the Congregationalists stand first in point of numerical strength. In Honolulu alone there are more than fifteen churches and missions representing the different denominations.

The capital and only city of the empire is Honolulu on the island of Oahu. It has a population of more than 24,000 and is in many respects a modern municipality. At this place there is the residence of the royal family and many public buildings. The network of wires about the city gives evidence of a telegraph and telephone system similar to that in use in the United States. In several of the larger islands the telephone is a common means of quick communication, and in Honolulu alone there are thirteen hundred telephones in daily use. The fourteen miles of street railway make different points within the city easy of access and the fares are no higher than those which obtain in the United States. A modern system of waterworks gives to the city its public and private water supply, and the street and public buildings as well as many private residences are lighted by electricity. Both the waterworks and the electric plant are owned and controlled

by the government. The railroad equipped with modern facilities, whose superior road-bed should provoke the envy of nations who boast of a more modern civilization, connects the capital of the empire with Ewa Plantation, a distance of nineteen miles, and there is also a branch road along the peninsula at Pearl City and a still further extension to a quarry at Palama. In all there are about thirty-two miles of railroad in operation radiating from Honolulu.

Nor does this brief enumeration include the whole equipment of this modern city. There are in Honolulu a half dozen weekly newspapers, nearly as many dailies, and four monthly publications, besides a publishing house having a modern and complete plant from which many books and numerous other publications are turned out printed in the English and Hawaiian languages and the Portuguese and Gilbert Island dialects.

There is a government hospital for the insane with an accommodation for from fifty to seventy-five unfortunates; the Lunalilo Home, in the suburbs of the city, maintained by the estate of a former king for whom it is named, where aged Hawaiians may spend their last days free of expense, and finally the queen's hospital erected in 1860 and endowed by Queen Emma, the consort of Kamehameha I., where relief is furnished for men and women alike. Nowhere in the islands are there better evidences of the beauties of nature than in the avenue which forms the approach to the queen's hospital grounds. It is lined on either side by royal date palms whose luxuriant foliage vaulting to the sky, almost perpetually blue, calls forth the admiration of the artistic sense. In addition to these institutions of a beneficent and philanthropic character and those modern facilities which supply the necessities of life to the citizens of the capital city, there has been wise provision made for wholesome entertainment. In 1881 an opera house was erected which has a seating capacity for one thousand people, and it also serves the purpose, there being so few theatrical companies who visit the islands, of a public place for entertainments of a local character such as concerts, amateur dramatic performances, and lectures. There is also a free public library which is maintained entirely by subscription and contains ten thousand volumes covering subjects of interest to almost every reader. The city abounds in colleges and

schools where pupils may benefit by graded courses, many of them higher and more advanced than the other schools of the kingdom. Honolulu being the commercial center of the Hawaiian Islands as well as the capital, one's expectations are realized in the substantial evidences of prosperity which are found in the number of banks, places of business, commercial exchanges, and, indeed, manufacturing plants.

The post office department of the Hawaiian government, while not so extensive as the American system, is yet equal to the demands made upon it. The Hawaiian government is a member of the Postal Union and has in operation a domestic and foreign money order system and a Postal Savings Bank, the number of whose depositors on the 31st of December, 1889, amounted to 2,641, with deposits aggregating \$909,613.87. Of the total number of depositors there were 814 native Hawaiians who had to their credit in the Postal Savings Bank deposits amounting to \$122,074.24. Here is a small empire whose history is but the record of a dark civilization in its early years and later that of revolution and conquest, in possession of a Postal Savings Bank operated by the government and plainly beneficial to the people, while her near and friendly neighbor, the United States, looks askance when the idea of such an institution is suggested by its progressive postmaster general.

I am not sure but that the public system of caring for the health of the people in Hawaii contains a lesson for more advanced nations. At all events the method employed in one particular, the provision made for the care and treatment of lepers and the confinement of the disease to narrow limits, is both effective and admirable. Leprosy has played sad havoc with the Hawaiian population for more than a century. Seven hundred persons afflicted with this fearful disease, together with about three hundred relatives and attendants, compose the leper settlement today. The asylum to which this colony is confined is maintained by the government at an annual cost of about \$100,000. It is situated on a plain on the northern side of the island of Molokai, facing the sea, from which the north winds sweep their way to a wall of uneven precipices having an altitude in places of 1,400 feet. Here it is that the fearful character of this disease is rendered as passive as possible by the aid of scientific agencies. If

medical authorities may be relied upon, the disease is not contagious and cannot be contracted except by inoculation. It would hardly seem that a more terrible condition could exist than that which for years to come must prevail in this asylum for the withering, dying unfortunates.

One turns with a sad heart from this awful picture to the contemplation of a phase of Hawaiian history hardly less remarkable in its bearings. It is the change which has been wrought in the population as shown in the following table :

Year.	Total Population.
1778, estimated by Cook .....	400,000
1823, estimated by missionaries.....	142,000
1832, official census.....	130,315
1836, " " .....	108,579
1850, " " .....	84,165
1853, " " .....	73,138
1860, " " .....	69,800
1866, " " .....	62,959
1872, " " .....	56,897
1878, " " (natives, 44,088).....	57,985
1884, " " (natives, 40,014).....	80,578
1890, " " (natives, 34,436).....	90,000

In 1890 the foreign contingent of the population included 15,301 Chinese, 12,360 Japanese, 8,602 Portuguese, 1,928 Americans, 1,344 British, 1,034 Germans, and a small representation of the French and Norwegian and other nationalities. The history of the great races of the earth does not present facts more worthy of study than are to be found in the statistics which tell the story of the depopulation of the Hawaiian Islands. The vices common to the natives and the alarming fatality of foreign diseases among them have placed a blight upon the native stock from which there is no recovery. Unmistakably, the destiny of the race is to become extinct.

The development of commerce in the Hawaiian Islands has accompanied the history of the empire. From those early times when the chief trade of the country consisted in the export of sandalwood until the present there has been a steady and ever-increasing advance, with which the geographical position has had much to do. As I have already stated, the first treaty of reciprocity between Hawaii and the United States, which was concluded in 1876, worked greatly to the benefit of both parties to the agreement. In 1878 the total number of exports reached the

value of \$3,500,000 and the total value of Hawaiian imports was \$3,000,000. The treaty of 1887 had much the same effect as the former treaty and gave to international trade a wholesome impetus. During 1890 the value of Hawaiian importations amounted to \$6,962,200 and that of her exports to \$13,282,789. More than 92 per cent of the foreign trade of the Hawaiian Islands was carried on in 1890 with the United States, while the United States received substantially all the exports of the Hawaiian Islands. The greatest commercial product of the Hawaiian Islands is sugar, of which the United States receives the total foreign product each year. Other Hawaiian exports which amount annually to about one million dollars in value, are rice, bananas, hides, wool, goatskins, molasses, coffee, tallow, sheepskins, betel leaves, cattle, and taro flour. For the year ending June 30, 1890, the Hawaiian Islands imported into the United States 11.42 per cent of the total amount of sugar imported into the country during that period and having a value of \$12,159,585, while the value of all other exports combined amounted to only a little more than one million dollars. Of the 293 vessels in the foreign trade of Hawaii having a tonnage of 236,701 there were 224 vessels sailing under the American flag and 35 under that of the Hawaiian government.

In the light of the recent disturbances, which have made this small empire of great interest to the people of our own country, the form of government which has, until recently, been in operation is interesting. Upon the death of King Kalakaua in 1891 his sister, the heiress apparent, succeeded to the throne and since that time she has been the executive head of that system of government which may be called a limited constitutional monarchy. The legislature consists of a House of Nobles composed of twenty-four members, who are elected for a term of six years, and a House of Representatives consisting of from twenty-four to forty-two members elected for two years. The Houses sit in joint session. In addition to these public officers there is a cabinet composed of four ministers appointed by the sovereign holding executive power and who may be removed upon sufficient cause by the legislature. Such was the form of government in vogue up to the time of the recent revolution which has excited the interest of the American government.



On the fifteenth of January last, Queen Liliuokalani made the attempt to promulgate a new constitution, obviously for the purpose of increasing her power in the government. It has been hinted that the queen desired to benefit in a pecuniary way by granting concessions for the establishment of a lottery, and the importation of opium into the kingdom, both of which had until a year ago been prohibited. It is best, however, to adhere to fact. The queen desired more power. This new constitution as framed by her, deprived foreigners of the right of franchise, abrogated the House of Nobles, and gave to the queen herself the power to appoint a new House. This blow aimed directly at the foreigners, who are the largest property holders in the kingdom, stirred them to prompt action. The queen's own ministry were unsuccessful in their efforts to dissuade her from the attempt to put the new constitution into effect. The resolve was not to be shaken, however, and her determination to carry out her plan incited the people, chiefly the foreigners, to oppose the measure. The outcome was a revolution in which not a single life was sacrificed. The queen was deprived of power, the monarchy abrogated, the government buildings seized, and a new provisional ministry composed of four members placed in power sustained by an armed force of volunteers. The visit to this country of the commissioners appointed by the provisional government was natural enough in consequence of the friendly and reciprocal relations which have for so long existed between Hawaii and the United States. Their application for annexation is due chiefly to the relations and the extensive interests of Americans in Hawaii; the value of her trade to the United States and the opportunity for control of the harbor off the Hawaiian coast which would give to the American navy the best and most important harbor and coaling station in the north Pacific Ocean.

The commissioners of the provisional government were cordially received by the officials of the State Department at Washington and their recognition as the accredited representatives of the Hawaiian government by President Harrison giving them a distinct and definite diplomatic standing was in accordance with international custom. While the plans for annexation were being discussed by the executive department at Washington the envoys of the deposed Hawaiian

queen had reached San Francisco and passed on to Washington to lay before the president the other side of the Hawaiian story. In the meantime events at Honolulu had taken an interesting turn. On February 1, the American minister residing at Honolulu established a protectorate over the Hawaiian Islands in the name of the United States. This action of the American minister was entirely upon his own responsibility, aided by the commander and force of the U. S. cruiser *Boston*, and is probably without precedent in the history of American diplomacy. When the American flag was hoisted over the government building at Honolulu on February 1 in recognition of the new order of things the Hawaiian Islands for the first time lost their complete independence. This protectorate was established presumably for the support of the provisional government in maintaining the public peace and is purely of a temporary character. The subsequent developments in the Hawaiian annexation measures are well known. The President's Message to the Senate, dealing with the important phases of the question and recommending the ratification of the annexation treaty as agreed upon and signed by the secretary of state and the Hawaiian commissioners, and the action of the Senate,—these are matters of recent history.

Such is the history of the people and of their resources, whose national destiny is left for the American Republic to determine. By far one of the most interested spectators of Hawaiian affairs is the young Princess Kaiulani, who was sent to England several years ago to be educated. It is barely two years since the princess received at her address in London official notice of her appointment by Queen Liliuokalani, whose niece she is, as heiress to the throne. Since that time she has seen her prospective empire drifting away from the royal house of which she is a member and witnessed the monarchy whose head she was destined to be, totter and fall. With the collapse of the royal power her chances for becoming more than a Hawaiian princess are but few. Those documents which would have made her a queen some day in the future are now but the evidences of lost power. They will, however, entitle her to an annuity from the generous government whose flag is to be the national ensign of the Hawaiian people in the years to come.

## A SHANGHAI PILGRIMAGE.

BY ALETHE LOWBER CRAIG.

SHANGHAI is the most European of Asiatic cities. During our first two years in the East we had heard constantly from our Chinese servants, "Waitee you see Shanghai; Shanghai allee same New York, allee same London," and when, after long expectation, we walked over the gang plank of the Nippon Yusen Kaisha steamer on to the Shanghai wharf, we might indeed easily have imagined ourselves in an American or English city; taken through well-paved streets lined with tall, handsome blocks of business buildings, to the *Astor House*.

However, we found that the European resemblance of Shanghai was "skin-deep" after all. Throughout the whole length of the extensive water-front of the city are handsome hotels, residences, consulates, and business houses; but you need penetrate only two or three blocks inland to find narrow lanes, darkened by the blank gray walls of prison-like Chinese houses; or you may stroll through streets of native shops, open, unglazed, brilliant with lanterns and hanging signs of red and gold; while the "old city," where no foreign element or innovation has been permitted to enter, with its massive walls, forbidding gateways, and seething multitudes, is within a stone's throw of the Shanghai Club.

When we two American women arrived in Shanghai, we were already somewhat familiar with Chinese sights, sounds, and smells, but we had never seen a Chinese crèche, so we made our promptest pilgrimage to the Convent of the Sisters of Mercy who are doing such good and kindness to those forlornest of little human creatures, Chinese children. The coachman and footman of the brougham that was temporarily ours, were in

a livery of dark blue and bright yellow. They wore full, blue trousers, drawn into their thick, curved shoes; a full, short, belted jacket with large flowing sleeves—this also of blue trimmed with bands of yellow—and reposing jauntily above their queues was a broad hat of Tam O' Shanter resemblance. When starting out we feared that the picturesqueness of our outriders would penetrate the brougham, and be communicated to us; but the glare and glitter of the fantastic equipages and costumes on the crowded *bund* soon diverted us from our own comparatively modest turnout.

We were first impressed with the Parsee policemen who guard the Foreign Concession, much to the hatred of the force of Chinese also employed there. These Parsees are immense swarthy men, uniformed in long black frock coats, with turbans of brightest reds or yellows. They are a terror to the Chinese, but we found them always unfailing in their civility, assistance, and attention to our comfort. The pedestrians are altogether a picturesque multitude.

The Chinamen in flowing robes of soft, dark blue or heliotrope silk, with an armless over-jacket of plum velvet or silk, the trousers inclosed in loose gaiters; the coolies drawing heavy carts, with their bronze bodies guiltless of little but a hat in the way of costume; American and English missionary women dressed in Chinese fashion to the extent of loose robes and uncovered



A peasant omnibus.

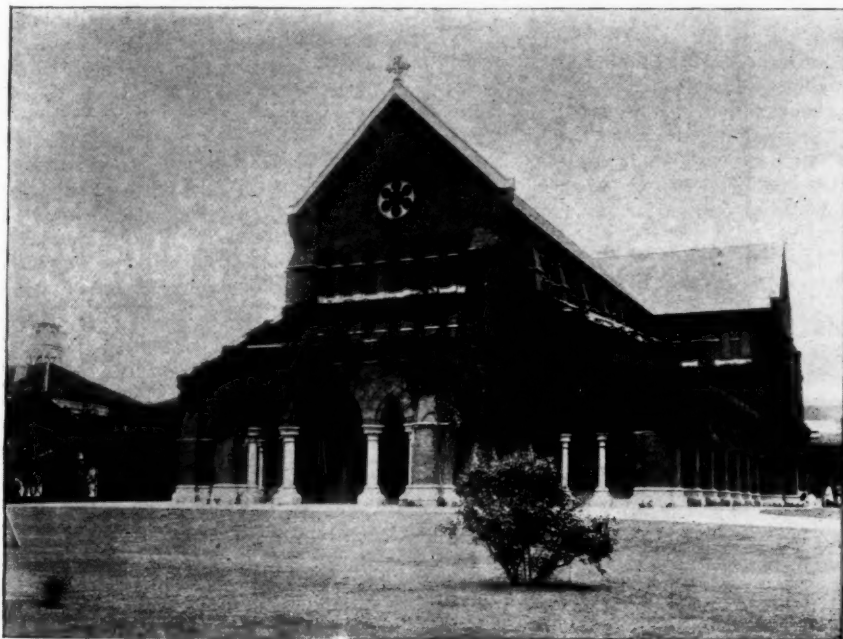
heads, but retaining their own simple hair-dressing; Parsee gentlemen with close hats of black beaver, in shape resembling a bishop's miter; also a sprinkling of East Indian merchants and *ayahs*.

The European tendency of Shanghai is par-

ticularly evident in the vehicles, as the Chinese, instead of moving through the streets in palanquins or mule litters, roll about in

is very long, very handsome, crowded with Chinese and European wealth and fashion.

Leaving behind us the harbor full of ves-



English Cathedral in Shanghai.

carriages. Yet there are occasionally sedan chairs passing through the crowds, enough of them to vary the scene, with swinging tassels and bright embroidered hangings. For the poor natives there is another distinctive Chinese conveyance, a peasant omnibus. This is a wheelbarrow with somewhat prolonged handles, propelled by one brawny coolie, the muscles prominent under his oiled skin proving that five men and women curled up in the "seating compartment" and sitting dangling on the handles—a common sight—make no light burden.

The first part of our route was along the edge of the Public Gardens and within sight of their grottoes, glades, conservatories, and palm houses. These gardens are a succession of little parks following the water side of the *bund*. Every Asiatic seaport has its *bund*, a broad street on the front having buildings on one side only. The wharves and freight landings are at either end. Thus there is always reserved a fine view, more or less extensive, of the water and the harbor. The Shanghai *bund*

sels, the huge steamers of the French, German, and English lines which carry nearly half round the world—from the Mediterranean to the Yellow Sea—the increasing army of globe-trotters, men-of-war of all nations, and the little hooded sampans shooting about the river like minnows, we turned into the most elegant avenue of residences in the East, the Bubbling Well Road, thronged with the bewildering brilliancy of Chinese turnouts scintillating through the steady stream of quiet, well-appointed carriages of foreign owners. Although a few wealthy native merchants drive in the elegant seclusion of a black or dark green brougham, the barouche is the favorite carriage. Many of these have noiseless bicycle wheels, a constant joy to the coachmen, who take an infantile delight in tinkling the warning bells. The decorations are astonishing. A wide mirror inserted in the back reflecting the street scene is a popular style; others are painted to resemble a lotus pond, with flowers and leaves of as large proportions as the body of the carriage permits.

The linings are of brocaded silks in bright yellows and light greens. Not less gorgeous are the occupants, the girls and women in bubbles. After searching looks we did—or we imagined we did—perceive a faint ebullition, not enough, certainly, to reward expectation.



Residence on Bubbling Well Road.

pale, embroidered gowns and jeweled head-gear, the men also in delicate colors. In shrieking chatter twists through the crowds the ragged retinue of a passing mandarin who sits calmly disdainful in his tasseled palanquin, peering over a fan through big, brown, owl-like spectacles. Some of the attendants are on horseback, but there is also a rabble on foot equipped with banners and spears, while others bear aloft a writhing paper dragon, fifteen or twenty feet long.

On each side of the street are elegant villas, embowered in trees and gardens. An architectural custom not infrequent and not pretty is that of backing the house close to the avenue, the kitchen entrance thus being prominent, while the lawn and flowers are out of sight, concealed by the wide house, the lodge, and the hedge-bordered driveway.

Bungalows, cottages, and stately homes are left behind, we pass the large, rambling mansion, the lawns and tennis courts of the Country Club and reach the theme of "song and story," the "Bubbling Well," where we had ordered a halt that we might gaze upon this Shanghai sight. Situated close beside the drive, it has a low stone coping and bears some resemblance to a small well, but seems at first sight to be unruffled by any

Wondering if the crèche would prove as disappointing as the well, we resumed our drive, and passing through a few miles of low, flat, featureless country, reached the little village of Sicawei, whose comfortless houses clustering near the convent gates seem to seek shelter there. A ring of the clanging bell brought a Chinese porter to open for us the high, heavy gates which shut out and hide "the world," and we found ourselves in a garden enclosure, rather desolate on this cold China morning, but suggesting for the springtime a softening halo about the severity of the convent walls. After passing the scrutiny of a Sister door-keeper, seated behind a kind of religious little ticket office, we were shown into a suite of comfortably furnished reception rooms to await a guide. The convent belongs to a French order, and excepting Chinese, only French is spoken. These French missionaries devote their whole existence to the bettering of native lives, vowing never again to enter France, but to leave their bones in China.

After a few moments' delay a bright Sister with cheeks like rosy apples, glided into the room as silently as a sunbeam. We told her of our interest in American efforts toward



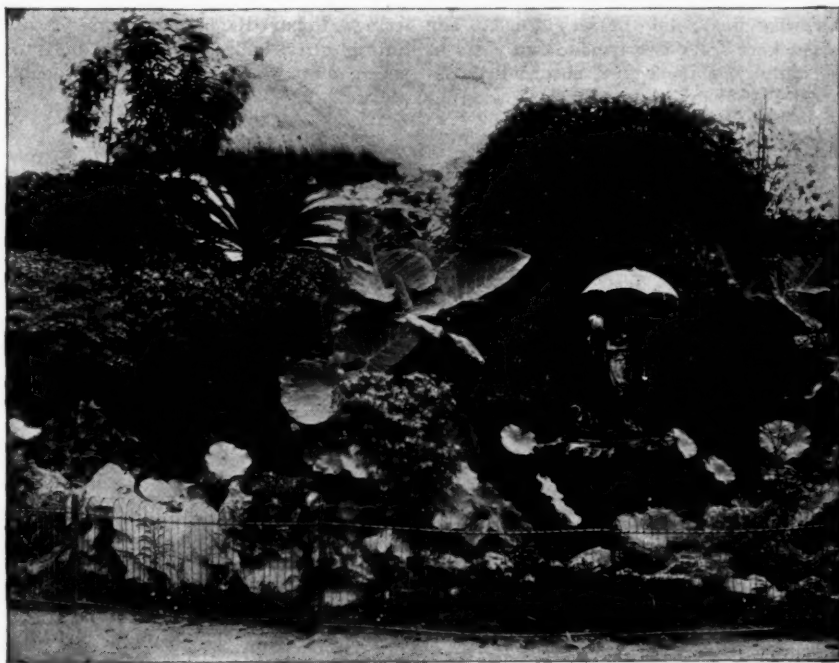
rocking neglected little cradles and our wish to see that department of the convent. She expressed her willingness and pleasure to be at our service—our letters of introduction were "open sesame" ones—and uttered the polite hope that we would visit every department.

The convent is built like those often seen in Europe, an arcade of cloisters surrounding a large open court. Passing through an immense storeroom where broad, shallow baskets filled with rice were stacked to the ceiling, we entered the workrooms. The whole process of making cotton cloth from handling the raw cotton to the weaving, was done by hand, with no aid from modern machinery; this, in order to fit these peasants for their peasant life and resources. There were many blind ones, marvelously deft, among the workers, blind from smallpox, a most common misfortune in the East.

valuable windows, statues, and altars made in Munich. A few Chinese girls were reverently kneeling, praying for "souls in purgatory," doubtless, since that is the special vocation of the order.

In the refectory and kitchen we saw rice, rice, rice, cooked and served according to Chinese taste, in stews steaming with grease and shredded cabbage, differing from native ways only in the perfect cleanliness which prevailed—cleanliness does not enter at all into Chinese life, either in palace or in hut.

We next visited the schoolrooms. Although the day was bitter there were no fires, and several children were sobbing with the cold in spite of their four or five winter-wadded tunics and trousers. Distress does not add to the attractiveness of a Chinese youngster—far from it, yet no impatience was shown by the teachers, only soothing and fondling. There is also a *pensionnat* de-



Scene in the Public Gardens.

With excusable pride Sister Angélique led us into a very beautiful little chapel. It was not a distinct building, merely a large room among the cloisters, fitted with artistic and

partment where girls of well-to-do families are educated at their own expense. These "heiresses" were gowned in silks instead of cottons, and occupied better furnished rooms.

They exhibited to us their excellent embroideries and sketches.

There are five hundred Chinese inmates of the convent. We did not see all; the infirmary was omitted from our tour of inspection, fearing contagion, and we were spared the insane ward, though we saw one harmless imbecile wandering about the courtyard, whose story revealed some of the sorrows of lower Chinese life. Her husband, after selling their three children, sold his wife as well. With unusual rebellion she fled from the last cruelty, hid herself in a stream under a bridge, remaining for three days up to her neck in the water. When discovered her mind was wrecked and she now constantly fancies that she is being pursued by the fiend to whom she was sold.

Our visit was for the sole purpose of seeing the crèche, but evidently our saintly usher wished us to see and appreciate all the work of the nuns while the sharp edge of our interest was still keen, as she reserved for a charming finale the nursery scene. The babies were from two days to two years in age, chunky, almond-eyed, absurd little objects. The older babies slept in swinging

cribs, the younger ones in tall baskets of pretty wicker-work, while the new arrivals—in the world as in the crèche—were kept in what might be called incubating tubs, high, like an old-fashioned churn, having braziers of burning charcoal underneath to supply a brooding warmth. All the cribs and baskets were canopied with suspended curtains of white muslin. Chinese nurses and French Sisters were in charge. The children are most gently and comfortably cared for, but they had so few toys that the large majority were obliged to act as spectators while the very small minority had the use of the playthings, causing some tears and thumps and scratches. In short, we found all the waifs in the convent so happy and fortunate we felt this one appeal only to our pity. We tried to express it when we said adieu to Sister Angélique by leaving in her hand a sum of money to remedy at her convenience the one shortcoming. Yet we could hardly return rapidly enough to Shanghai, so eager were we to have the pleasure ourselves of selecting carts, balls, drums, and dolls to be packed off to the fascinating little cubs at Sicawei.



The Crèche at Sicawei Convent.

## WAGNER'S OPERA AT BAYREUTH.

BY L. A. BOURGAULT-DUCOUDRAY.

Translated for "The Chautauquan" from the "Revue des Deux Mondes."

WAGNER said with reason, "Let those to whom my works seem worthy of attention come to Bayreuth!" It is quite impossible elsewhere to form a just idea of the effect of his musical dramas. Wagner is not only a poet-musician; he is an architect, a stage manager, a machinist. No detail of the complex organism of a musical theater escapes his spirit of reform; all the tools of this immense establishment have been smelted anew in the crucible of his inflexible will; he knows how to organize all forces, to direct them to his liking, and to co-ordinate them so as to assure the exact manifestation of his thought and the truthful representation of his conceptions.

Ordinarily the dramatic composer has to submit, in the public presentation of his work, to some conditions which he did not create; those of means, of locality, of acoustics, without speaking of the necessary concourse of interpreters, more or less devoted, and of the numerous collaborators—servants more or less respectful of his thought. He must depend first upon his librettist—the finest music cannot make an opera successful if the poetical composition is such as to be condemned; second, upon the singers—the absence of a popular star can compromise or retard the success of a work; third, upon the leader of the orchestra—an alteration in the movements or a lack of ardor in the interpretation is sufficient to misrepresent the spirit of a work; fourth, upon the stage manager—the arrangement of the operatic stage has its tradition, its precedents, and it is often impossible for an author not to conform to its requirements even if he is convinced that an infraction of these conventionalities is necessary in order to insure the complete realization of his thought; and last, upon the machinist—it has happened that a wrong working of the machinery has spoiled the success of a scene, and indeed that of a whole play. Under ordinary conditions the production of an opera—I use the word production in the double sense of creation and of representation—is the result of a co-operation of

actions and wills; if a single act is unskillful or a single will rebellious, it operates against the success of the work of art.

Wagner, full of absolute confidence in his own ability, broke away from all servitude, suppressed all collaboration, and assumed all responsibility; he became at once his own musician, his poet, his architect, his stage manager, his machinist. Not being able to take the parts of the concourse of musical interpreters, he knew how to fascinate them, and mold them to his will. More than this, he reformed the audiences before whom his dramatic music was produced and imposed upon his public special customs, conformed to his own taste and his will.

Wagner is his own architect. In 1851 he conceived the plan of his building; departing entirely from the method hitherto believed practically necessary, he gave free utterance to his ideal in his theoretic writings and in his tetralogy of the Nibelungen, for the representation of which he dreamed of a hall built after an entirely new model. The realization of this dream was fulfilled twenty-five years later when fortune, a long time his enemy, changed her persecutions into favors. In November, 1871, Wagner chose Bayreuth as the place in which to build his model opera house, the first stone of which was laid in 1872, and which was inaugurated in 1876 with the tetralogy.

As to its exterior the building of Bayreuth offers nothing remarkable but its site, very happily chosen upon the side of a wooded hill. Its architect did not attempt to make a handsome building, but one perfectly adapted to its use. On entering the hall the visitor experiences a surprise; there are no stages, no galleries, no orchestra visible, but simply the rows of seats which rise to the single gallery (the gallery of the princes) placed in the back. Nothing at the sides excepting the very simple pilasters supporting the apparatus for lighting the building, and between the pilasters, doors, the deposition of which recalls the vomitories of the ancient theaters.

Those playgoers who hold in great esteem

a beautiful hall will find little to please them in this respect at Bayreuth. But the spectators who demand of the opera the emotions of art will regret neither the galleries usually so elegantly peopled as to rival the stage, nor the boxes which often put to torture those who wish to hear. At Bayreuth the interest for the spectator lies not in the hall, but in the presentation of the play. As much within as without, has the architect sacrificed the pleasure of the eyes to the legitimate exigencies of art.

Certain renowned architects have been guilty of saying that the acoustic properties of a hall are simply the result of chance. Without being an architect at all, any one can observe that halls richly decorated, surcharged with hangings, whose walls present few plain surfaces, and whose ceilings are very high, are in general unfavorable to music. The acoustics of the theater of Bayreuth confirm the justness of these observations. Not luxurious, very little decorated, very simple in its outlines, of a medium height, it possesses an ideal sonority. It must be added that it is of moderate dimensions, holding not more than sixteen hundred and fifty spectators. But all the seats are good; from any part one sees and hears excellently.

The orchestra is entirely invisible to the audience. The anterior part is concealed by a sort of roof made of zinc which covers the leader and the first rows of players. This apartment is extended by reaching under the stage. Between the stage and roof of zinc there is an empty space giving rise to imposing sounds. The noisy instruments are placed at the back in the part entirely covered by the floor of the stage, which forms as it were the upper jaw of this sonorous mouth. The great advantage of this disposition is that it permits the instruments to play loudly without drowning the voice of the singer. Even in its transports and its bursts of fury, the orchestra never covers the human voice. It might be asked, if the orchestra is indispensable to the life of the musical drama, would it not be better to have it visible? The sight always reminds one that the most mystic sounds are produced by material agents whose aspect is often far from being ethereal. If this spectacle interests the dilettante from the point of view of technical curiosity, it also distracts the attention of the spectator from the prin-

cipal object and destroys the illusion of the drama.

Wagner wishes to have the whole attention of the audience directed to the stage; and to attain this result he employs a radical but efficacious means. At the beginning of each act the lights are turned down until the hall is in almost perfect darkness, while the stage remains light.

When an amateur truly enamored of art visits the opera it is in the hope of entirely divesting himself of his own existence in order to take up an ideal life. If he could be sure, in taking his place, of the power of exchanging his personality for that of another, created by the fancy of the artist, the object of art would be attained. But sometimes the simplest word or movement is sufficient to divert his attention. Then, adieu to illusion! The charm is broken, the pleasure gone. The obscurity in which this hall is wrapped suppresses all the resistance which exterior impressions oppose to scenic illusions. The soul of the spectator who thus finds himself snatched away from the real world throws itself with ardor into the fiction, plunges with enthusiasm into the unreal.

One last specialty remains to be described in the material organization of the Bayreuth theater: the curtains are not rolled up according to the general custom. They are separated in the middle and are drawn to the sides in grooves.

Wagner is his own stage manager. Ordinarily, in opera, the arrangement of the stage is a compromise between the exigencies of the drama and those of music. Very often the singer, intent on obtaining the greatest musical effect, chooses upon the stage not the place which he ought to occupy but that from which his voice will sound the best. If sometimes he is obliged in the interest of the play to sing at a distance from the front, he is apt soon after to take sweet compensation. Sometimes he will address entire passages to the audience, which becomes much more preoccupied with this than with the opera itself. The singer will for some time forget all about the other performers in order to put himself in closest sympathy with his hearers. If he succeeds in charming them, they will recompense him immediately by applauding. In case of an encore he will reappear. After having exchanged these greetings the actors and the spectators will resume their posi-



tions; the former, if they can, losing themselves again in the illusion, the latter remembering that he has a rôle to play and taking up again his dramatic duty momentarily sacrificed in the effort for his own aggrandizement. This continual exchange of impressions and sentiment between actor and hearers gravely comprises scenic illusion.

Wagner has abolished all these conditions. While the darkness guards the spectator from the distractions which might arise from the sight of the hall, it also frees the actor from the influence of the audience. In a word the new arrangement of the stage is no longer based upon the relation between the actor and audience, but upon an exact representation of the play.

Wagner is his own machinist. The great reformer who has proposed to himself the task of making his own conceptions of an opera felt by an audience, could not neglect any part of the vast machinery required by the play. The enginery and the decorations become in his hands agents of expression helping on dramatic unity. Even the "truck" can no longer be considered as a *hors d'œuvre*, but it acquires an esthetic value and directly serves the thought of the poet in giving a superior value of impression to a work of art. In the scene of the Holy Grail in "Parsifal," at the moment when the miraculous light descends from the cupola and bathes with a resplendent purple the sacred cup, the effect produced by the luminous rays is one of great intensity because it coincides with the culmination of the dramatic and musical conception. Most ingenious and novel is the truck of the moving decoration. At the end of the first scene when Gurnemans and Parsifal appear traveling toward the burg where they expect to find the Grail, they tread upon a certain spot, and the scenery begins to move. The beholders see unrolling before them a succession of grand views; forests, rocky masses, and long galleries cut through the rocks. The scene gradually becomes gloomy, and from the shadows which envelop it there is seen to emerge the architecture of a temple. A strange music accompanies the march of the two travelers, but with all of its beauty it is not sufficient to work the spectators up to the highest point of expectation without the scenery. The astonishment, the religious awe, into which this marvelous representation of nature plunges them, with the decreasing light and the

oncoming shadows, are associated with the musical impression in such a way as to awaken a desire for the mysterious events about to happen. There are needed the material means planned out by Wagner to prepare the spectators for the sublimities of the scenes of the Holy Grail and elevate them to a conception of the divine.

The vocalists and instrumentists, Wagner knew how to make the obedient organs of a single and powerful will. He has exacted and obtained from his singers the promise that their personality shall be completely subordinated to the superior interest of the work. Their mission consists in strictly interpreting that which has been felt, thought, and formulated by the master. In order to give to the personage he represents the true character and spirit, each singer learns the whole work, instead of narrowly studying only his own part. All egotistical ambition, all striving after personal glory, is rigorously interdicted. Under no pretext is it even allowed any one to add to or subtract from the original poetical or musical text.

There is another cause which opposes itself at Bayreuth to the abuse of power or any great longing for effect on the part of a singer. In his latest works Wagner has subordinated the voices to the orchestra. The rôle of the singer is sometimes so reduced as to become simply the agent of the literary expression, the expositor of a situation of which the instruments express the dramatic efflorescence, the passionate enthusiasm. Thus the singers at Bayreuth apply themselves first of all to a distinct pronunciation of the words, which is necessary to an intelligence of the opera. The numerous consonants with which the German language fairly bristles and the vagueness of certain of its aspirates, render it rather unfavorable to pleasing inflections and to a light and lively style. The harshness of the language reacts upon song and this defect in flexibility and smoothness is still increased when the diction is brought into an exaggerated prominence. My first impressions of the language led me to doubt that German song could lend itself at all to soothing and charming effects; but my preconceived opinion rapidly changed when I heard Madame Sucher in the rôle of Iseult, and Mr. Scheidemantel in that of Wolfram. Madame Sucher unites to superior plastic and tragic qualities a superb voice and the talent of a singer of the first order. Sometimes she rises to the

fierce passion of a lioness ; sometimes she shows herself as sweetly seductive as a siren. Her fascination is equally irresistible in the passionate and in the gentle scenes. Mr. Scheidemantel has a barytone of enchanting timbre. He lends to the personage of Wolfram a serene melancholy which nothing can equal in penetrating sympathy and poetic suavity. The powerful and gentle emotions for which I was indebted to these two eminent artists, convinced me that German song—especially Wagnerian song—is not incompatible with the finest vocal effects. Among all the interpreters at Bayreuth there is to be found a spirit of self-abnegation, a conscience, a respect for the work, and an artistic fervor worthy of the highest eulogy.

Wagner knows how to hypnotize his public and to convert it into a sympathy with his special artistic methods. In adopting Bayreuth as the location for his experiment he knew well what he was doing. "The chosen city," he wrote to a friend, "must not be a capital city with an opera already well supported in it ; neither a watering-place bringing in summer a numerous public absolutely indifferent to such entertainments." He wished for no accidental spectators ; he would have them make a journey for the express purpose of hearing his representations ; they should come as on a pilgrimage. And he did not wish the pilgrims to find near his model building, any distracting entertainment, or any other opera whose old renown and artistic methods should be contrary to the tendencies of his new art.

All these conditions required by the reformer, Bayreuth supplied. It is not an insignificant city, but it is devoid of attractions great enough to divert attention from the Wagnerian opera.

The entertainments begin at four o'clock. Before each act a flourish of trumpets announces that it is about to open. These trumpets pour forth some theme typical of the work to be presented. Five or six minutes are allowed to the spectators for the purpose of finding their seats, before the hall is wrapped in darkness. As soon as the light disappears, the orchestra begins and a religious silence reigns elsewhere. The profound contemplation of the audience is not disturbed during the entire act ; no one speaks, no one moves. The beholder is so thoroughly absorbed in the scenic illusion that he experiences no other desire than to remain in it. All applauding

is forbidden before the end of the act and it is preferred that it should be delayed till the end of the play.

During the intervals between the acts—there are two of them and they last about three quarters of an hour—those who experience the need of digesting their musical impressions, can take a delightful promenade in the forest surrounding the building. The operas being given in the most delightful season of the year, these walks are charming. The intervals between the acts occur, the one about half past five, and the other about seven o'clock, a little before sunset, the most poetical time of the day. When the trumpets sound the signal for beginning again, the promenaders come back refreshed. At ten o'clock the entertainment closes, and all can go home gaily to talk over their impressions at the supper table. No business matters disturb any one. The artistic emotions can be prolonged until late in the night. The amateur pilgrims can sleep long into the next morning, and then have a half day of leisure in which to recreate, before beginning again the ascent to the temple. Among all the prodigies accomplished by Wagner, the most astonishing is, perhaps, to have furnished to admirers of the beautiful the opportunity of living for whole days without other preoccupation save that of art and the leisure of enjoying their impressions without need of haste.

Of the numerous musical dramas of Wagner it will be possible in this article to describe only one ; and for that one, "Parsifal" is selected. It seems rather to belong to the oratorio than to the opera. It powerfully represents the struggle between the two forces which are constantly and universally contending with each other—good and evil.

Wagner, in this representation, transports the spectators to Monsalvat, a mountain where rises the temple in whose sanctuary is kept the Holy Grail, the golden chalice in which, according to tradition, Joseph of Arimathea caught the blood of the Redeemer as He hung on the cross. The powers of evil linked against the guardians of the Grail are the magician Klingsor and the sorceress Kundry. The mission of Parsifal, "the hero of the pure and simple heart," is to triumph over them and to save Kundry. The character of Amfortas—the king of the guardians of the Grail and the victim of Kundry—whom an incurable wound received at the time of

his temptation and fall renders incapable of fulfilling his duties as king, furnishes the dramatic episodes capable of a powerful effect.

As soon as the curtains are drawn after the grand prelude, the beholder is struck by the religiosity of the scene presented. All the personages carry themselves with such a respect for the situation, and are so in harmony with the moral teaching of the poem that one experiences a feeling of astonishment and recognizes that this is no ordinary representation. The knights so reverently kneel and offer their prayers as seriously to impress the most indifferent.

The first scene, devoted wholly to the exposition of the subject, is perhaps a little long. While the introductory parts of the drama are being presented in their poetical measures, the orchestra is showing in its eloquent language with its playing colors and ineffable interlacings, the principal themes of the work: the divine mystery of love; the terrible power of evil; the character of the triumphant hero. This beginning is full of promise; it arouses anticipations, so soon to be realized, of a journey into a marvelous country, in which all things are ideal, and all are made clear.

I have already described the impression produced at the end of the first scene by the ingenious working of the truck, by which the spectator is conducted up to Monsalvat over lonely mountains and across wild regions. The blending of the musical and of the scenic effect inspires a deep enthusiasm; the beholder is enraptured by the strange perspectives, by these ravishing sounds, by the tones of the bells, heard at first in the distance, but which slowly grow more distinct and announce the approach to the sanctuary. In the obscurity involving the scene, there slowly rise indecisive contours, vague forms. Then the apparitions take shape; the eye distinguishes a colonnade supporting the cupola of a temple, and the mysterious hall of the Grail emerges from the shadows. All that which follows is indescribable and sublime.

The scene of the Grail is from the beginning to the end the most transcendent expression of modern lyric art. The music comes floating from four distinct parts; above the invisible orchestra sing the chorus on the stage; half way up the cupola there is another chorus from a group of invisible youths, while from the top the voices of children, also con-

cealed from view, seem to come directly from heaven. From all sides sonorous undulations envelop the listener. He might easily think that the temple itself was alive and that its soul sang and prayed in the presence of the great mystery to be accomplished. From an esthetic point of view one does not know which to admire most, the tragic song of Amfortas when he refuses to uncover the Grail, the sight of which would redouble his suffering caused by sin; the truly divine melodies which accompany the consecration of the sacrament; the mysterious chants emanating from the heights of the cupola; or the hymn intoned by the knights. This music has a value not purely esthetic; it exercises a soothing and holy influence; it is endued with high moral efficacy.

In spite of the trend of the genius of Wagner which could produce these most intense effects in the religious domain, it would have been impossible to present the conception of "Parsifal" without the contrasting element of the second act in which he has concentrated the malign power of Klingsor and the seductive influence of Kundry. The celebrated chorus of the flower girls which opens the second scene is one of infinite sweetness. There is only one blemish in the presentation: the decorator, under the pretext of floral splendor, has overdone his art and displayed great masses of immense flowers and phenomenal plants which produce an unpleasant effect.

The strongly developed duet in which Parsifal triumphs over the seductions of Kundry is made to teach its lesson most powerfully through the fact that it owes its greatest effect to the expression of the terrible anguish of the struggler rather than to the voluptuous accents of the temptress.

The scene which opens the third act is one of the grandest which it is possible to produce in drama. The personage of Kundry has a double character, one supernatural and one human. In the second act she is a magician, and derives her power through the sorcerer Klingsor, whose subject she is. In the other acts she is a womanly woman and aspires to be delivered from her servitude to the demon. Thus her rôle is leagued with all parts of the drama. Only a great poet was capable of creating this double character, who, in the second act, employs against a powerful opposition all the ruses of the art of seduction, and in the third co-operates in the

most pathetic representation of an ideal Christian. In the last scene Wagner rises to the highest regions of thought and carries there with him the fascinated spectator. In it Parsifal, having taken off his somber armor, appears in his long white robe, and Kundry, humble and repentant, washes his feet with her tears. This scene carries us back, thanks to the ingenious mechanism of the moving decorations, to the temple of

the Grail. We see again, with a delightful impression, the same scenery as in the first act; we hear again the same celestial harmony. And when the curtains finally close it is a heavenly sight which they shut out. If the spectator with regret tears himself from the contemplation of this ideal world, he, at least, carries with him the impression of a peaceful ecstasy and he leaves the building a tranquilized and a stronger man.

### SPRING FLOWERS AND GLACIERS.

BY PROFESSOR A. P. COLEMAN.

Of Victoria University.

SOMETHING is wrong with the eyes, if not the soul, of the man who sees the first wild flower of the season without a thrill of pleasure. So sweet and full of hope and promise are these small firstlings of a summer of blossoms to come that every lover of nature finds his heart warm toward them. So quickly do they push up after the snows melt and the warm sun takes the frost from the air, that they are the very type of undaunted American enterprise. Some sunny afternoon toward the middle or end of April we sally out along the shore of Lake Ontario to a favorite woods; and behold, the wonder is accomplished, the miracle is wrought! Where were snow and dead leaves lie thousands of spring beauties (*Claytonia*), their dainty pink flowers streaked with lines of deeper color. One may well be proud to carry home a generous handful of them. Not far behind in the race are the hepaticas, whose white or rosy or delicately blue flowers are even lovelier and have the advantage for the gatherer of longer stems to hold them by. Then come little white violets nestling in moist grassy places, as modest, but not nearly so pretty and fragrant as their old-world cousins. Adder's-tongues (*Erythronium*) spread their mottled leaves and nod their yellow flowers before long in rich-soiled woods; and trilliums flaunt their red and white banners beside them. These with a dozen less conspicuous blossoms mark the climax of the spring display. When they droop, their successors can no longer claim homage as forerunners of summer, for summer has already begun.

How much would you give to see the lovely

pageant unroll again without waiting for a year of scorching heat and bitter cold to prepare the way? This miracle can be worked by simply going to the mountains. I well remember the surprise and delight with which I thus doubled the springtime sensations.

Some weeks after feasting my eyes on the quickly fading beauties of my favorites by the shores of Lake Ontario, I betook myself to the mountains on the other side of the continent. It was July, well on toward August, when I found myself in the heart of the mountains. The forests of the great Columbia valley were hot, almost steamy, and the few flowers to be seen had none of the charm of spring. They looked pale and anemic as though lacking air and sunshine.

We set out to ascend a mountain west of the river. At first our way led through tangled forests. Nothing was to be seen but trees, the great tapering trunks and shadowy green of spruces and cedars that lifted themselves a hundred or two hundred feet above the mossy or marshy floor. Rarely was there a glimpse of the world outside. We trudged steadily upward, at first with a gentle ascent, but afterwards with a much steeper one that made us pant for breath. Meantime the forest grew less tremendous. The trees were smaller and more scattered, and frequent outlooks through the branches showed sky and distant mountains. At about five thousand feet above the river and six thousand above the sea, the trees grew stunted and finally dwindled to gnarled and crooked dwarfs below seven thousand feet, the line where the severity of winter and the fury of unhindered storms made the growth of trees impossible.



Once above tree level we had the world in view again, and, doubly beautiful, the wide valley with its dark forests through which we had struggled, the pale green river winding like a serpent, and the opposite mountains, small ones wooded to the top, larger ones rising with bald crowns above the forest limit, and giants lifting their snowy summits out of reach of the most daring plant.

But let us turn to things nearer at hand. Our feet rest on a rich meadow carpet through which points and ridges of rocks here and there thrust themselves. Flowers innumerable, of every color in the rainbow with purple in addition, spread themselves along the tiny rills and larger water courses. We ascend into a deep *cirque*, or kettle-shaped valley, hollowed by some long-vanished glacier, and here we meet a second springtime in late July. It is a delight worth even a more disheartening march than ours through the forest region.

Let us examine our surroundings more at length. In the intense mountain sunshine we seem to be in an enchanted valley fenced in on three sides by masses of rock pushing a thousand or more feet into the dark blue sky. A dozen snow-fed streams tumble in spray from the rocks above and water the floor of the valley before uniting to form a tumultuous creek that roars and fumes along its rocky bed on the way to the great river beyond. A few clumps of spruces stand in sheltered spots, dwarfed and deformed by their hard struggle for life. They are ragged and squalid looking, and have no claim to beauty. Around them we find, once more our spring flowers, some of them just like those of April at home. There are hosts of spring beauties scattered over the slopes lately covered with snow, a little smaller and more faintly colored than their eastern relatives, but almost as pretty. Beside them are adder's-tongues in full bloom, handsomer even than those in Ontario. Anemones, yellow violets and buttercups, columbines and forget-me-nots join in the lavish display; and it is evident that spring is just at its height. It is worth noticing that they are all in bloom at once. In our slow eastern spring each species keeps its own festivals and anniversaries without sympathy for its neighbors; but here in the mountains where spring comes in July and autumn a month or two later, there is no time for exclusiveness or standing on ceremony. Flowers must open to the visiting flies and bees

the moment they get the chance or no seed will have time to ripen; and so they all burst into bloom at once with a joyous rivalry that is enchanting. One might almost think that their rude climate promoted democracy and common hardships fostered good fellowship.

It is evident that spring and its blossoms grow later and later as we move northward and upward from the perpetual spring of tropical plains to the endless winter of the far north and of the snow and ice-covered mountain tops. It is clear that if we climb higher spring will be still later and fall earlier, until we reach the vanishing point for vegetation and winter reigns the whole year round. Even the snow itself may form a soil however for one plant, and here and there patches on the mountain tops grow rosy with the spread of *protococcus nivalis* whose microscopic cells multiply even at the freezing point. Spring seems late enough at the first of August, but accident may make it even later. I was greatly interested in the effects of an avalanche which hurled its snow masses far into a valley where they lay slowly melting all summer. At my visit in September, a great bulk of sullied snow still remained. Where the soil had just been uncovered the plants roused themselves from their long sleep as if it were only May, and began operations as though the whole summer was before them. Ferns unrolled their downy crosiers, Scotchcaps and a dozen other plants were just coming into blossom, while their neighbors a few paces away had already done their year's work, had dropped their fruit and now stood with sere and brown leaves waiting for winter. One hardly knew whether to be amused or touched at this mistaken confidence in the regularity of the seasons.

There are some very interesting points to be noticed in these Rocky Mountain flowers. Some of them are very much like our familiar eastern wild flowers, though by looking closely small differences may often be seen, large enough differences to make the botanist class them as distinct species, though of the same genus. It is remarkable that many of these flowers are absent from the vast prairies that part east from west on our continent.

Besides the familiar blossoms of the mountain slopes and lofty valleys there are a great many strangers mingled with them or making beds and bunches by themselves. Most interesting perhaps are the heathers. The

word heather recalls to a Scotchman much-loved scenes where the hardy purple-flowered plant mixed with yellow gorse covers wide stretches of rolling moorland with deep rich color, the joy of artists.

These Rocky Mountain heathers are, however, very different from their Scotch connections. There are three species, one with yellowish flowers, another with dark red ones, and prettiest of all a kind with dainty white bells something like those of the lily of the valley. They are mossy plants and grow all together, forming immensely thick and soft cushions or carpets on the knolls and in the hollows. I have more than once found them ready-made foundations for a comfortable bed.

The most interesting fact in regard to these heathers is that they are here isolated. You have to travel nearly three thousand miles east to find their nearest relatives, a few isolated heathers in Massachusetts, Nova Scotia, and Newfoundland at the opposite edge of America. Across the Atlantic about the same distance eastward, on the British moors heathers once more show themselves. There are many other Rocky Mountain flowers isolated as completely. No near relations people the deeper valleys or the plains in the center of the continent; though close allies may be found on the summits of the White Mountains far to the east.

A few years ago I tramped with a fellow-student over one or two of the Alpine passes. There too were plants allied to some found high up on the Rocky Mountains. It was once my fortune to be shipwrecked near the North Cape in Norway. There, and near the quaint little town of Hammerfest, nestling among the bleak rocks where snowbanks still lay in patches in August, were lowly plants in bloom reminding one of our own hardy mountaineers.

Now let us ask ourselves how we can account for these strange facts. Why should we find these colonies of closely related plants thus scattered over the world near the snows of isolated mountain tops or on the bleak hills of arctic lands, separated by broad continents and oceans?

Both the geologist and the botanist have a keen interest in the answer to this question, and a wide-reaching theory has been framed to satisfy our curiosity. This may be given briefly.

It is generally assumed that species have originated each at a single center from which

it has spread slowly in various directions where the right conditions existed. If this be correct, how did the alpine and arctic plants overleap hot plains and wide seas to reach their cool points of refuge near the perpetual snows?

Let us suppose that the common ancestors of all these colonies existed together in the arctic lands north of Europe, Asia, and America. In some way the climate slowly changed for the worse. The winter grew longer and colder and the summer shorter, the snows fell in ever-increasing depths until the short cool summer no longer sufficed to melt them, and they accumulated from year to year. This went on for ages till thousands of feet of ice had formed near the pole and on the mountainous parts of the northern hemisphere and the Ice Age had taken possession of the land. Vast glaciers, like those that now cover Greenland till only the highest summits project above its surface, formed themselves and spread farther and farther southward over Europe, Asia, and America till the whole face of things was changed. The effect of all this on northern plant life is evident. In comparatively recent geological times palms and laurels and many other tropical or semitropical plants flourished north of the Canadian boundary. The steady advance of the northern cold must have exterminated these plants or have driven them year by year southward. A flora adapted to temperate climates followed them up, to be in its turn driven out and replaced by an army of arctic plants that thrived even at the foot of the glaciers, till the advancing ice overwhelmed them and put an end to all life.

After an Ice Age of unknown length a change came over the scene. The climate grew milder and the supplies of snow no longer replaced the loss of the glaciers by melting. The ice foot slowly retreated leaving behind the heaps and ridges of clay and gravel and stones that cover so large a part of Canada and the northern states. As the ice withdrew, the arctic plants settled at its foot steadily reconquered the abandoned territory, covering with verdure and beauty the bare ugliness of the "drift" left by the ice. As the region grew warmer, these cold-loving plants could no longer endure the summers and died out toward the south as their advance columns pushed northward. After them followed the plants of cold temperate climates and then of warm temperate ones

until the present state of affairs was reached. By this time the hardy plants of the cold had been driven step by step to their old haunts in the bleak mountains and tundras north of the arctic circle. A few of them gradually fitted themselves to the altered conditions and still live on, mixed with forms of more temperate regions in southern Canada and the northern states; but many could not endure the increasing heat and slowly withdrew toward the cooler mountain tops, where straggling bands of them still subsist as an "alpine flora," exiled remnants of the hosts that once occupied the plains.

The story of the Ice Age, and of the vast, if slow, migrations of the plants is indeed one of the fairy tales of science; but the evidence for it is too clear to be disputed. The strange mixture of northern and southern species which this mighty advance and retreat must have brought about is no doubt one cause of the richness and variety of forms which we now find over the temperate zone, and accounts for the small communities of rare plants sometimes found scattered here and there even in the lowlands, thousands of miles from the regular home of their kindred.

These plants of the mountains give interesting evidence in favor of evolution. The flower that we pick on Mount Washington is rarely just the same as the one found on the Selkirks, and both differ a little as a rule from similar plants of the Alps or the Scandinavian mountains. In their long wanderings after they parted company in the far away northern mother land they have undergone unnumbered changes of condition and untold vicissitudes to which they have more or less adapted themselves and thus drifted asunder in species as well as in locality.

The causes of the widespread glaciation of the land we live in are obscure and a good deal of difference of opinion exists in regard to them. Some think that to suppose an elevation of the northern ends of the continents will account for all that took place; since the higher the land the colder the climate in general, so that what once fell as rain afterwards falls as snow, the raw material of glaciers. Others suggest a change in the shape of the ocean basins, cutting off the warm currents that now carry the heat of the tropic seas toward the poles. Still others follow Croll in thinking that the cause of the cold is to be looked for in changes in the earth's orbit which slowly varies in eccentricity from age to age. The result must be that at points of high eccentricity in one hemisphere the winter is long and cold, when it occurs in the part of the orbit farthest from the sun, while the summer is short and hot. Of course just the reverse takes place in the opposite hemisphere. Which of these theories is the more correct, or whether two or more of them should be combined is not easy to decide. The one thing certain is that at one time or perhaps several times, our hemisphere became largely encased in ice, which melted a few thousand years ago; and that the flowers we pluck in the spring owe their distribution largely to the process. Strange, is it not, that a tiny wild flower should bear in its mere presence at one spot or another evidence of the profoundest significance in the life of a world! If we had a complete history of the wanderings and dangers undergone by a single tribe of these little beautifiers of the bare woods of spring, how full of interest it would be to the geologist, the botanist, and every lover of flowers and of nature!

## THE COMMON SCHOOL IN THE SOUTHERN STATES.

BY REV. A. D. MAYO, M. A.

EVER since I cast my first vote in a presidential election, for Henry Clay of Kentucky, I have heard the usual screed of patriotic oratory on the theme, "No North, no South, no East, no West." But even till this year of our Lord, 1893, I have looked in vain for that millennial condition of the great American republic as a "kingdom come." Doubtless all these years

the good time has been coming of which the poet sang a generation ago. But, as in the career of a man, so in the making of a nation, the beneficent Providence is "from seeming evil still educing good in infinite progression."

At the climax of his wrath, the Hebrew Saul hears the divine challenge that converts him from the chief of persecutors to the chief

statesman of Christianity and the saint of the church. Young Augustine, the champion sinner of the Roman Empire, is called by a mother's prayer to formulate the theology for a dozen centuries. So, out of the din and dust of the greatest civil war of modern times, when North and South, like two colossal athletes, wrestled for the mastery of half a continent, was heard, once more, the old keynote of peace: "A little child shall lead them."

There is but one spot where the republic stands firmly fixed on "the corner stone that shall not be moved." That corner stone is the American common school. In all else, the country is still divided. The material interests of Northeast, Northwest, South, and Pacific slope are still involved in a conflict that keeps the national political weathercock at Washington in an ecstasy of rotation. Before he can "point with pride" to one "great victory," the wind rises to a cyclone and his head is reversed or he is blown away. Ecclesiastical differences seem verging to another seven years' war between old and new schools, right and left, center, wings, and heretical tail-feathers, flying all abroad. We still, in Boston, add, "from the South," when the charming young lady from Kentucky is introduced at Mrs. Gardner's reception on the Back Bay. Mr. Page of Virginia writes about the grand old Virginia gentleman and his admirable lady in a way so enthusiastic that the despairing beaux and belles of Richmond and New Orleans marry and move to a ranch, beyond range of the most powerful social telescope.

With every issue of the magazines we are informed that literature, art, and music have forsaken the old Northeast and are hovering above the "white city" annex of Chicago; awaiting an invitation to alight on the Exposition grounds, as soon as the "material resources of the great West" are put on dress-parade for the admiration of the world. Everywhere there is still a North, a South, an East, and, most emphatically, an "out West"; all the way from the smoke-stacks of Pittsburg to the glaciers of Alaska.

But no people ever becomes a nation, even in our loose republican sense, till it gets settled on its final corner stone;—a common interest—so all-pervading that nothing save a convulsion from the deeps can move it from its place. When, at the close of the Civil War, the South heard the cry of the children

for that education which is the bread of life and, in all its sixteen states, for the first time established the American common school for all orders and conditions of men, that stone rejected by the builders, was laid, henceforth to become the head of the corner. The American common school, like everything distinctively American, has been the slow growth of the two hundred and eighty years of our colonial and national life. Whether it was laid in the district school of the New England Puritans, or the free school of the Dutchmen of Manhattan, or, earlier yet, attempted on the banks of the James River, matters not. It was the one corner stone of the new American life that was bound to be laid as the foundation of that "government of the people, for the people, by the people," which is the American ideal of nationality.

The American common school, in this growth of almost three centuries up to its present state, has passed through as many changes as the child from the promise of the cradle to the performance of the man. But, whatever may have been its defects or variations at any time or in any place, its trend has always been one way. As soon as it is relieved of any special hindrance or surmounts any local hostility, it strikes out by the one route toward what it always becomes when permitted to have free course. There have been free schools in all nations, from the dawn of civilization. There have been schools for the lower orders, under all dispensations of religion. There are now great national systems of public education of immense value including all classes, in some ways a model; established, supported, and supervised by a paternal government.

There are school systems for the masses, as in England, where a variety of special arrangements are subsidized by the government, the system held together by a periodical inspection; or, as in Canada, where the public moneys are divided between the rival churches of the country. Each of these schemes has its peculiar excellence and each has, with us, a respectable party of advocates who press the adoption of some particular feature of old-world educational policy as a reform of our present American common school.

But, with a half-conscious repulsion that seems no less than providential, the American people, in every American state, have re-



jected all save their own peculiar institution—the American system of Universal Education—whose animating soul is the people's common school. This school is established, supported, and supervised by the whole people; unsectarian in religion and unpartisan in politics; though sound in the morality of our common Christianity and patriotic as no political party can be; free to all who come; reaching from the plantation primary and the city kindergarten to the state university; the grand highway of American citizenship, leading from every man's front door to the summit of American society. Around this center of the nation's life are grouped, in due order—every variety of private, denominational, university, professional, and industrial schools; the free library; the new journalism, and the modern type of familiar public discourse that is everywhere supplanting the oratory of the past; all the numerous agencies of that popular culture which gives to every child in more than one way, an educational opportunity enjoyed by no man half a century ago.

The fundamental history of the United States, the story of the American common school, remains unwritten. Yet, below all other strata of the national records, it alone explains the development of the national life. Up to the revolt of the thirteen colonies, the people's school lingered in New England, with an occasional outpost beyond.

Thomas Jefferson, greatest of American educational statesmen, even before that, had outlined the nearest approach to the system of our own day. He urged upon the Virginia of one hundred years ago a scheme of popular education which, had it been accepted, would have brought us to our promised land without fording the Red Sea of war and wandering, for half a century, in the desert of reconstruction. But only to him was vouchsafed the privilege of building, though more in ideal than in actual accomplishment, the upper story of the scheme, in the University of Virginia; the mother of the present state university of every commonwealth.

The educational clause of the ordinance for the settlement of the Northwest, at the formation of the government, by the concurrence of the statesmen of every section, was the first response of the new nation to the prophecy of New England and Virginia and

established, by national aid, the common school of that early day in the vast domain that now holds in its powerful and eager hands the destiny of the republic.

Fifty years later, from New England came the first national revival movement of popular education, directed by Horace Mann, Henry Barnard, and the splendid group of school men who in every northern state gathered around these apostles of the children. Out of that uprising of the educational public in every northern state came the present organization of the common school in its breadth of moral, mental, and industrial purpose; its improved methods of instruction and discipline; its prodigious vitality and amazing growth. This coming year 14,000,000 children and youth will respond to the schoolhouse bell; 8,000,000 will be in daily average attendance; \$350,000,000 invested in school property; and \$150,000,000 annually expended; \$16.50 for each pupil in daily attendance.

During all the years before the great national conflict, the South was no indifferent spectator of what was being done in behalf of the children north of Mason and Dixon's line. Every southern state made more than one effort to establish a common school for the humbler classes of its white population; while it made, for the day, good provision for the secondary and higher education of its superior class.

No history of popular education will be complete without a fair and full account of the efforts of an influential body of southern educators to achieve this end; from the group of eminent men gathered about Jefferson, in Virginia, through all the old and new southern states. Again and again did this growing educational public come together in conventions. A volume of the addresses and papers called forth by these assemblies would be one of the most valuable public-school documents for circulation in any portion of the Union. In some of these states a system of common schools was established, always with varying success, yet still in operation at the breaking out of the war. Among that noble brotherhood of educators, no head towered above Robert Breckenridge of Kentucky, who in the hour of dire peril, saved the common school of his state. In several of the foremost cities of the South the graded system of instruction for white children and youth was established, in no essential de-

gree different from the schools of cities of similar importance in all the states.

The present southern common school was not imposed upon the South by the government of the United States, or built by the missionary effort of northern churches. It came up as the natural and logical result of the great change in the industrial system of the country at the call of the children and youth. No state waited long before including the freedman, though individuals doubted and the logic of the situation demanded the separation of races in its administration. It came, with the drifting away of the storm-clouds of war, as easily and naturally as the grass grows in the spring or the sun breaks out from the rack of the tempest. It was always in the heart of the southern people, because the southern people were an American people, only biding their time to join the people of every section in their effort through the education for American citizenship to assure the safety and glory of the republic through all years to come.

Next to the honor given to the fathers of the old South who joined hands with the old Northeast to establish the Union, the historian will record the labors of the leaders of this common school, men and women, a smaller number than many of us suppose, who during the ten tumultuous years before 1876 quietly laid the foundations of the American common school for all in every state that ever has been a part of the South. Then, and not before, was the Union a reality, no longer divided, wholly founded on the rock; the training of every generation, as it should rise, by the whole people, in that education of the heart, the head, and the hand which, beyond all theories of public affairs and all constitutional safeguards of freedom, is the one permanent assurance of success, for a nation like the American republic can endure only through the perpetual effort of all its people to make of every child a noble woman, a patriotic man.

There was one set of people in the United States who at the close of the war needed no reconstruction. They came together like brothers and sisters, separated for a season beyond control; and, to this day, hang together with a common affection and a common purpose prophetic of success,—the common school of the United States. They join hands together to-day, with only the discord of an occasional local grumbler, generally a

partisan politician or an ecclesiastical wire-puller masquerading as a school-man. This division of the grand army of the republic has marched on to the most notable achievement in education in the history of mankind; and while many good people do not yet appreciate the fact, the part of this movement that will become most notable in history is the educational revival in the southern states during the past twenty years. In that time, from a condition of industrial prostration never realized outside the borders of eleven of its states, it has rehabilitated its old-time system of the secondary and higher education, made it broader and better, with an eye open to the best ideals of all the great educational peoples. This year a larger number of southern youth will enjoy the opportunity of this grade of education than in any previous time.

For the first time the South, in these memorable twenty years, has fully accepted the American people's common school and planted it in every state, city, and neighborhood, in such fashion as was possible under the conditions of time and place. There is now no southern, distinct from the American, common school. In every state it includes every child that comes. In every state it is free. In every state, save possibly one, it is wholly separated from sectarian, religious, or ecclesiastical control, though practically the most powerful public moral agency for all children and youth fairly subjected to its influence. Already twenty per cent of the people of the South are enrolled in the common school. From a condition of absolute educational deprivation, the colored people of the South now have the usual per cent enrolled in schools, free to all, supported, like all public charges, by the property of the state. This year the southern states will pay \$25,000,000 for the American common school, a sum as large as the British Parliament votes to subsidize its peculiar system of public education, still half a century behind our own. Indeed, old England waited till new Virginia moved, in 1865-70, for her own memorable effort to establish a working scheme of public education. In 1880 I began the series of journeyings which, under the name, a ministry of education, have continued now these twelve years through all the states of the South. The steady advance through these years, under my own eyes, has been something not to be understood, save by one who overlooks

the entire field and marks this steady progress; as irresistible as the flow of the mighty father of waters from its fountains to the open sea.

Considered in all its relations to the former history of these states, their condition in 1865, their trials and temptations of the past twenty-five years, there has never been an educational movement more spontaneous, more decided, more successful, in any way more remarkable in its outcome, than this establishment of the common school and its adjustment to all the educational forces of modern civilization in these states of the South.

So when I am called to answer the question, "What is the South doing in education?" I can only say, Just what the Northeast, the West, the Pacific states are doing, steadily at work to improve its educational affairs, with a faith pledged to the American system by which it intends to abide.

Of course all competent educators in these states know what remains to be done even better than I. With all these heroic labors and sacrifices, still little more than half of the children and youth of these states, from six to fourteen, are in daily attendance on any school four months in the year. A majority of the prosperous villages have established the graded school, which goes on with the usual ups and downs of the village and city common school everywhere.

But it is in the open country where nine tenths of the southern children still live; a country as large as central Europe, with scarcely the population of England and Scotland, that the great effort must be made during the next twenty years. Especially is the call now heard to school the children and

youth, in view of the present uprising of the southern masses to assume the administration of public affairs. That ground-swell is not a political freshet or an earthquake, but a permanent uplift of the third estate of the southern people. It has come to stay. And the more rapidly the states of the South make ample provision for the fit education of the children of the masses, the more beneficent will be this advance on the lines of a true American administration of public affairs.

The welfare of the eight millions of colored citizens of the South now depends more radically on this movement than upon any effort of the North or the nation in their behalf. Up to the present year no portion of the American people has done so much for the schooling of the negro as the class which was impoverished by his emancipation. The superior class of these states has planted and supported the common school for colored youth for twenty years, and patiently waited for the outcome of this great experiment. Now let the whole southern people follow this leadership in a new departure for the uplift of the country-district and village common school for all classes and both races. As this good work goes on every question that now wearies the public and torments the private life of the South will yield to the one cure for all our nation's ills, the gradual elevation of all people, in that schooling and discipline of the head, the heart, and the hand, which through the three great agencies of a Christian civilization, the family, the church, and the school, can alone assure the final result of this mighty experiment in self-government, here and everywhere, through all time to come.

## A FINISHED TASK.

BY MARY H. LEONARD.

FINISHED at last! The work whereto I've given  
 My best for years, and striven  
 Not with self-seeking, but because was laid  
 On me demand. I made  
 The final touch my rainbow quest. At last  
 Like a flash fulfillment passed.  
 Now weary, empty, purposeless, I ask  
 Is it gain or loss to count a finished task?

## Woman's Council Table.

### ROMANCE IN LONDON ON THREE HUNDRED A YEAR.

BY SUSAN LAWRENCE.

WHO can imagine, much less calculate, the pleasure and profit we miss in life simply because we bow to circumstance instead of forcing it to bow to us? Nothing was ever accomplished in life, by anybody, without something, usually a good deal, of this belligerent spirit, and a determination to win a reluctant "yes" where circumstance seems to scowl a dismal "no." How many women, for instance, are aching with desire to visit the old world of art, poetry, history, and story, yet see nothing but a hard and ugly "no" upon the face of their fate?

Some years ago a paper was published in one of the leading magazines entitled "Europe on Nothing Certain a Year." It told the fascinating story of a penniless young woman who was able to earn \$300 a year by writing stories, and who determined to, as it were, take her life in her hand and go to Europe. It is said that the author of that paper received over fifty letters from women in different parts of the country asking for still more information as to how she managed to live decently, travel extensively, profit and enjoy enormously, and finally return alive to tell her story, and doubtless to receive enough for that telling to pay for still another ticket to Europe if she chose again to go. The fact of those fifty letters proves how many women desire as much as she desired, but have never supposed they could fight and venture as she did.

My experiences in London have been not unlike that writer's. Her article precipitated my desire into action and I came over with no more money than she. Mine however is a regular remittance. Rain or shine it comes every quarter, and finds me always at my last penny. Space does not permit more than a bald statement of how I live in London. To many readers that statement will seem hideous. They will find the game not worth the candle. Fortunately some of us have stronger zest for our games than others, and set a different value on our candles. The world is full of people who would rather miss Westminster Abbey forever than a single sauce to their dinner. Such will

shudder at my story. They would better not read it.

I have a clean attic room in a respectable house and neighborhood four miles from Charing Cross. I furnish the room myself and have no "attendance." "Attendance" in English lodgings is a fox to eat up one's vines with "extras." My room has a wide and deeply impressive view over brilliant and somber London. I must stand up to see it, for my only window is a "dormer."

At the Friday Rag Fair in the cattle pens of Islington Market I bought a faded and mended but clean rug for \$1.50. I fumigated it with sulphur and carpeted my floor entirely. I bought a chair bedstead for \$3.25, fumigated it, and now during three years have seen no single creeping objection to second-hand furnishing. My steamer chair folds away when I have no use for it. My toilet apparatus is a two-gallon tin can and pail and an immense tin basin. The latter I hang to a tack out of sight under my table. That table is a large circular board upon a pedestal of my two trunks, and covered to the floor with my steamer rug. One of my trunks is a small steamer affair, and, established upon the larger one, makes a convenient height for a table. Four screws in the board and trunk lid secure my table from ground and lofty tumbling. There is a tiny grate in my room which consumes 10 cents' worth of coke in a winter's day, unless I burn the midnight oil, which I rarely do. Over this grate (with a spirit lamp in summer), I do my cooking. I have a tiny "Dutch oven" to be affixed to the bars of the grate. In it I fry sausages, cook a bit of steak, chop, or bacon, bake apples, tomatoes, potatoes, a square of gingerbread, or a light fluff of baking-powder biscuits, all without an atom of smell. The charm of an open grate is that it takes all odors up the chimney.

My shelves hang high, and have a curtain. The upper ones hold my books, the lower my *batterie de cuisine*. Thus the latter never brings me back to sordid realities when I glance up from Reports of the Psychical Research Society; from my studies in Renais-



## Woman's Council Table.

ROMANCE IN LONDON ON THREE HUNDRED A YEAR.

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sance Literature with the University Extension teaching; from the newest novel from the library, or criticisms of picture exhibitions, which exhibitions I follow as closely as could Madame Midas. The furnishing of my garret cost \$16.00, and I pay a weekly rent of 62 cents. My expenses amount to \$4.00 a week when I am careful, and read much at home, as I am apt to do at the end of each quarter. But I am much abroad. There are hosts of free lectures and galleries, almost all exhibitions are free on certain days, and "orders" are not difficult to obtain when they are not. I frequent reading rooms where I am warmed and supplied with periodicals and newspapers, sometimes for two pennies, sometimes one, sometimes for none. The two-penny ones are numerous. A favorite penny one is at Whitely's, the great cheap bazaar. A free one is the public library nearly opposite St. Martin's Church, "in the Fields" of brick and mortar. An unsurpassable one is at the People's Palace in Mile End Road. For American papers I seek the reading room of bankers, as free to the penniless, if clean and decent, as to the millionaire.

I ramble all over London exploring nooks and corners, unearthing relics and memories of great men and women gone, whose lives and work make our world romantic. I follow Dr. Johnson through Tetter Lane and Fleet Street, I slip after Goldsmith's ghost, I keep mute company with Charles Lamb, Leigh Hunt, De Quincey, with Thackeray, Dickens, all the glorious company of immortals. Sometimes I grow of wilder thought and seek my company with strange bohemians—I track Savage the wayward, from the now prosaic and respectable spot behind towering mansions, where his hidden birth chamber was, through the lanes and alleys of his tortuous career. I seek the street where Chatterton died and scan the footsteps of the Cock Lane ghost. I follow pretty, wayward bohemian Mrs. Inchbald, actress, playwright, then religious mystic, from street to street, till I almost become wayward and mystic too. I hunt for traces of Colley Cibber's vagrant daughter, poetess, actress, novelist, princess, beggar, and always bohemian, till I stand near the reservoir at Islington where she died in wretch-

edness and want, and I almost seem to have closed her tired, hungry eyes.

When I keep this ghostly but vivid company I spend more money. Omnibuses and trams steal away one's pennies, and London is too vast to be pilgrimage-covered on foot entirely. I carry bread and fruits in my bag and buy a six-cent pot of tea wherever I may be. I have a wide acquaintance with economical and respectable restaurants, but as a rule I prefer to wait for my chop at home for seven cents, to paying sixteen for it elsewhere. It is a rich, active, healthful, picturesque, shabby life. I prefer it to the teapot tempests of American villages, the desperate struggle for appearances of American city life.

Of course London is too large to ask where one's friends live, even to know their profession. I mean for us who are not "in society." Yet it is far from a lonely life. At lectures, leagues, conferences, congresses, federations in libraries, reading rooms, I meet often the same faces. In time pleasant acquaintances are thus made. Then there is my club, where the persistency and apparent immortality of my one blue serge dress occasions no remark, and where for a shilling I may invite a friend to tea. Such invitations are returned, and I enter into a good many delightful, if plain, London homes.

I meet cultured intellectual women there, my brain is stimulated by them—and I rejoice to live in a garret and wash my own stockings and handkerchiefs; for books are my meat, art my wine, and poetry, legend, tradition, the sweet honey of my existence. I hear all the eloquent preachers of the metropolis of the world. I keep pace with politics, with thought, with scientific discoveries.

What matters it to my enjoyment of existence that I have not a second pair of shoes in the world, and that my gloves are mended? What blight is upon my fate, or my fad, that of my \$300 a year I spend more upon romance than I do upon raiment, more upon poetry than upon pudding? "Better are dumplings than daisies," says a Chinese proverb. I am not Chinese, and I prefer daisies, though grown in a garret, or plucked by humble waysides. Had not even Lazarus joys that Dives never knew?

## Woman's Council Table.

### THE CHAUTAUQUA OUTLOOK CLUB.

BY MARGARET C. DAVIS.

THE leader of the Outlook Club at Chautauqua last summer was Miss Mary H. Mather, of Wilmington, Del., a graduate of Smith College. She is a tall, dark-eyed woman with an un-failing fund of ideas, wide experience, and bright manners which won at once the sincere love and admiration of the girls of the club. She showed much skill in clothing attractively commonplace subjects. Life, she said, was to be treated in a threefold way, ourselves, our home, our neighbors. The following are some of the topics treated: Can Mary Ever be Jane? Where Shall our Front Doors be? Mrs. Ruggles' Training in Manners, Is Breathing a Lost Art? "A Nook and a Book," Red Tape, "The Shoes of Dependence," What to do in the Evenings, The Inevitable Seventeen Cents, A Pot of Mignonette, Skirt-braids and Bureau-drawers, "The Lady with the Lamp," The Ideal Friendship, Idiosyncrasies of Small Brothers, The College Beautiful, A Family Bible Class, An Old Violin, "Tinsel or Something Else," A Boston Bag, Lending a Hand.

The meetings were held in the third story room offered by the Presbyterians at their headquarters. The white festooning of cheese cloth completely covering the rafters of the roof and much of the sides of the room was done by willing hands before the meetings began. The same girls went to the woods to get the graceful ferns filling the chip baskets hanging around, and furnished the wooden butter dishes painted white in the niches between the rafters.

On the morning of the first meeting Miss Mather stood at the table, in a charming white flannel gown, watching while the hundred chairs, which she had ordered with many secret misgivings as to so large a number, were filled by expectant girls. As room became scarce she said, "There are some nice clean spots over here on the floor if you don't object to sitting there. We used to like to sit on the floor at college better than on chairs." Laughingly the invitation was accepted and the exercises began. After the quoting of the morning thought, that was

always the custom, sometimes from the Bible, sometimes from one of the patron saints—watch for explanation of term—and a short prayer, the object of the club was explained. Then the morning's subject was taken up.

"Can Mary Ever be Jane?" was understood to stand for individuality. Miss Mather, this morning, read a paper in which we were introduced to apple-blossom-loving Mary, with all her instinctive reachings toward beauty and ideals in life, who has been left to fill Jane's place. Poor Mary! Her grand-mamma's eyes seem made to see moths rather than apple blossoms. Mary must search and overhaul the contents of the attic boxes, instinctively upsetting everything which should retain a vertical position. "Will Mary ever be Jane?" sighs grandmamma. Jane sits with her needle work in a western city where she is visiting, discussing and exchanging recipes for cake and pickles, or stopping to learn a new stitch in crocheting. "Can Mary ever be Jane?" *Never*. But she must often do Jane's work. She need not do it, cannot do it in Jane's way, though she may learn much from Jane's orderly methods and Jane might learn with much good to herself to observe the beauty around her.

Then followed a plea for the keeping of one's individuality. The question, "How should our individuality affect us in judging others?" brought the answer, "It should make us broad." To "What is the danger of individuality?" the answer came, "Eccentricity."

Every subject seemed to broaden beyond all thought in its choosing. Sometimes the subject was left over until the next morning. This was true of "Where Shall Our Front Doors be?" or "The Home and Hospitality."

One of the beauties of this club was that all were allowed to tell what they would like to have and do (ride their "hobbies") without regard to the actual attainment. Ideals were at a premium and this morning when the girls had been asked to come prepared to describe what they considered necessary to ideal reception rooms, libraries, dining rooms,

kitchens, sanctums, and guest rooms, there seemed to be no end at all. Color in library furnishings was discussed. Dark colors were the choice, reds, greens, but the brown study seemed to have the preference. "The Sanctum" brought out all that is in a girl's soul. They reveled in ideals of pink, blue, green and white, yellow and white.

Miss Mather said there were three stages in every girl's life. The "cluttery" age when the sanctum was filled with everything,—photographs, german favors, souvenirs, philophena presents, throws, butterflies, pictures, bric-a-brac. Then came a time when many of these were taken down, last a time when the sanctum is simply a restful place, where we free ourselves from all the trifles and petty things. The ideal guest room incited one to go visiting at once. Among the minor appointments were suggested the placing of writing materials in full sight, a magazine or book of short stories, a work basket with all small necessities for mending, a card with arrivals of the mails.

"Is breathing a lost art?" brought the unending discussion, new to many of the girls, of ribs, vital organs, trailing skirts, bones—whale and steel—and better methods of walking and standing. An extra meeting was held on Saturday morning for the discussion of hygienic clothing, of which Miss Mather brought several samples.

In "A Nook and a Book" the best thought of the morning was the one that the theme or object of every book or article should be watched for all through. As an exercise in this Miss Mather distributed some short poems, asking the girls to read and write out the themes. They then discussed likes and dislikes in books.

The subject "The Shoes of Dependence" was taken from Olive Schreiner's "Dreams." Self-dependence and self-consciousness was the topic. Consciousness of clothes, possessions, and bodily defects were talked of. Mrs. Emily Huntington Miller spoke to the girls this morning. "If," she said, "you will not wear the shoes of dependence you cannot go bare-footed. The sandals of a real purpose in life will be of great service." She then gave the Arabic proverb, "Square yourself for use; the stone fitted for the wall is never left in the way."

The "Pot of Mignonette" was set back in its window for one morning in order to have Mr. Melvil Dewey address the girls on "A

New Profession for Women," that of librarian. Many who had thought it no great task to keep a library circulating, sat in wonder as the difficulties of the task were laid before us carrying conviction of their truth with them. He told of the schools for the training of librarians, the best taking a two years' course after a high school or college education, and said that admission was denied unless a special fitness is shown for the work. In the examinations for admission the questions are on matters of general information, such as, Give the names of ten leading newspapers of to-day and their editors, or the names of ten public speakers.

"The pot of mignonette" always standing in a certain window was a symbol for the thought of giving beauty to others, and brought up the flower mission work; the free kindergarten work for those human flowers whose sweetness and fragrance is so soon not only lost but becomes a positive evil; and a new phase of work, the picture mission. Photographs, copies of the great masters, representations of Bible scenes were hung up in a house (for the children) and left for two weeks. The children always asked questions, and thus set the parents and friends to hunting up the stories of the pictures.

"The Inevitable Seventeen Cents" brought up the unbalanced accounts, business methods, and Miss Kate Kimball, secretary of the C. I. S. C., to help out. A good many faces burned when Miss Kimball in her charming way begged the girls to pay attention, to listen, and not work on a half thought. "Do not keep the conductor waiting while you fumble around for your ticket. Count your change; women seldom do. Be systematic. Don't write a bill or a receipt on a torn scrap of paper. Learn to endorse a check on the right end." Then followed some instruction on keeping accounts.

I wish I could give you the next in full on the vexing question of "Skirt-braids and Bureau-drawers." Most of us saw our own top bureau-drawers when Miss Mather spoke of stirring things up with a hairbrush until the wished-for article came to the top; of the wild confusion of our rooms before a party; the whited-sepulcher feeling when we put on a ragged skirt or a shoe minus a button; and the consciousness of duty well performed when occasionally with stern resolutions to keep things so, we rid up. Of course there can be but one remedy, the old one, "the

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place for everything and everything in its place." Miss Mather divided our belongings into the actual essentials which we need every day, the semi-essentials which may be put in some place less easy of access, and the possible essentials or the keep-them-seven-years-and-they-may-come-in-use things, which should be bundled up, and not put away, but given away where they will do the most good.

"The Lady with the Lamp" was perhaps one of the most mysterious subjects. The lady was Florence Nightingale. Miss Stone, who is a nurse trained under the Nightingale system, was invited to talk to the girls on what to do in case of emergencies. Burns, scalds, fainting, bruises, and cuts were discussed. Miss Stone illustrated bandaging by bandaging the arm of one of the girls. In burns the one object is to keep the air away and use a dressing which will not take off the skin when removed. If the skin is unbroken, use flour and bandage. If broken use olive oil or vaseline, and wrap in cotton.

A pleasant morning was spent with "The College Beautiful." Representatives from Wellesley, Vassar, Smith, and Swathmore described their colleges, giving the particular aim and atmosphere of each.

The helpfulness of good habits was the underlying thought of the "Old Violin." The wood of the violin somehow as time goes on comes into harmony with the rest of the instrument, and so our good habits may bring us more nearly into harmony with the Good and True.

"Lend a Hand" was a mutual good-natured confession of faults with a plea for help. The bad habit which seemed to cause the most concern was the careless habits of thought so common to women, the inability to think continuously.

You will see several subjects were omitted. Some took more time than their share, some were given up, in order to give time to some one who had been invited to address the club. Among those not already mentioned were Bishop Vincent, Mrs. Alden ("Pansy"), and President Merrill E. Gates of Amherst.

This girls' club is to be a permanent thing. Its members are divided into circles of ten, each circle taking the name of some famous woman, their "patron saint." The members are to be in correspondence with one another during the winter, and the leaders in correspondence with Miss Mather. Many of them will take up the works of their patron saint, studying them along with the author's life. At Chautauqua next year a club room of their own is promised. Already a small library has been purchased from some money given Miss Mather for the use of the club, each circle of the twenty-five choosing a book.

It is hoped that this work will be taken up by other girls. But a word of caution. Miss Mather's idea is that it shall be done as summer work or done as the work of some already existing society, such as the "King's Daughters." Girls have already too many societies to undertake another during the winter months. But certainly it will form admirable summer work.

## A WOMAN PUBLISHER.

BY EMILY A. KELLOGG.

MRS. FRANCES E. OWENS was the first woman in the West, and as far as I know the first woman in America, to demonstrate the capability of woman as a book publisher. To her success in that line is no doubt due the inception of other similar enterprises under the proprietorship and management of women. Her modest beginning preceded by several years the business of Dr. Alice B. Stockham and also the formation of the Woman's Temperance Publishing Association, both now of world-wide fame. In-

deed, it is exceedingly doubtful whether Dr. Stockham would ever have gone into this business had it not been for the stimulus and encouragement afforded her by the experience and counsel of this judicious and stanch friend.

Frances Emogene Johnston, as Mrs. Owens was known in maidenhood, is a lineal descendant on her father's side of a certain MacJohnstone who was knighted by Robert Bruce of Scotland, and her great-grandfather, a Presbyterian clergyman, was a graduate of the University of Edinburgh. Her brother, Mr.



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John H. Johnston, the well-known and successful jeweler of New York, took great pleasure when abroad in tracing out the family genealogy. Both brother and sister have an honest pride in the record of an honorable family and are in their own lives worthy exponents of the family motto, which is "Ready, ay, ready" to respond to the call of duty. On the mother's side they are the grandchildren of one of our Revolutionary heroes.

Mrs. Owens' early childhood was passed in her native place, Sidney, Delaware County, N. Y., and there her only educational advantages were those to be obtained in the common country schools of the Empire State. But so thorough was the drill and so thorough and earnest the girl that a career as teacher began for her at the age of fourteen. To the old-fashioned grounding in the elements, especially in the field of mental arithmetic (now somewhat *passé* among modern educators), Mrs. Owens attributes much of her success in life. She then acquired that readiness and persistence in calculation and that comprehension of values which, with her native integrity, makes her now so justly valued as treasurer of the Illinois Woman's Press Association, of the Illinois Woman's Alliance, of the Columbian Association of Housekeepers, and also as one of the auditors of the Woman's Baking Company, and president of the Woman's Associated Printing Company.

This young woman's first teaching was done in a country school near Clyde, Ohio, whither she had removed at the age of fourteen, and after a year of experience there she came to Chicago. Since that time most of her life has been identified with this city along the lines of its truest development. Upon coming hither, Miss Johnston determined to supplement her education by the best to be had in the western metropolis and entered the Chicago Normal School, which was presided over by Mr. E. C. Delano, now one of the superintendents of the Chicago public schools. Upon her entrance examination she was ranked third in a class of three hundred applicants and throughout her course she maintained a high standard in thoroughness and proficiency. She recounts with pride that she took her diploma in July, 1860, in the old Wigwam which was erected for the Republican Convention in that year and that she was also present under the same roof when Abraham Lincoln was there first formed.

H-Apr.

ally nominated for the presidency of the United States.

The youthful and ambitious graduate stepped at once into the position of a teacher in the Chicago public schools and at the age of eighteen was the principal of a branch school, with five assistants. A very successful experience of four years was briefly interrupted by her marriage after which she still continued in her work as teacher. Her married life was exceptionally happy and harmonious until the health of Mr. Owens was wrecked and his strength permanently impaired in consequence of a sunstroke from which he suffered during the summer of 1881. Since that time the burden of caring for and educating a family of five children has been cheerfully and ably borne by the wife and mother. This family has now been carried through the trying years of childhood and two lovely and talented daughters have taken their mother's place in the educational field.

The family home continued in Chicago until the time of the great fire, in which their all was consumed, home and printing office being swept away by the flames. Then, thinking that in a new country they might better regain lost ground, they made their way to Vermillion in the then Territory of Dakota and there established and for more than four years published the *Clay County Register*. During their sojourn in Dakota that region was devastated by a scourge of grasshoppers. For three successive years farming interests and all business enterprises were totally prostrated by this singular and calamitous visitation. The *Register* was still published and met with the cordial endorsement of the people of Clay County, but what household can subsist on even the heartiest endorsements unless backed by something substantial in the line of eatables and wearables? Mr. and Mrs. Owens looked each other bravely in the face and queried, "What can we do? What shall we do? Our children must be provided for." The wife said, "You go back to Chicago and resume your work at the case and I will run the paper."

So the husband, an expert printer, returned east where he speedily found remunerative employment, and before many months was able to send for the members of his little household. During the interim the wife carried on the *Register* with the help of an office boy only and her constituency noted no lack of enterprise and "go" therein, for if any change was evident the "woman's pa-

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per" was credited with more push and vim than when it had been a joint enterprise. The plucky and able woman finally found a purchaser for the *Register* and with her children rejoined her husband in Chicago, where he had provided a home.

Mrs. Owens had long, with true housewifely zeal, been collecting household recipes which friends had proven to be valuable and trustworthy, and one day her husband said to her, "What a heap of scraps you have there! Why don't you pick out the best of them and make a little book? I will print it for you on my press down stairs." So she went to work and with her little ones all about her and baby Ivy securely tied in the high chair, within mother's reach but just where she could not make the papers fly, the busy woman culled and collated, and in due course of time appeared in family conclave with a manuscript.

"A big book like that!" exclaimed the husband. "You will have to take it down town. My printing outfit is not sufficient for that."

"I can't afford to take it down town," replied the wife.

"I think you can. Couldn't you sell enough to cover expenses? Here is Mrs. Duncan (an inmate in the home and a capital book-seller). Couldn't she sell enough books to make it pay?"

After many consultations and with the advantage of Mr. Owens' acquaintance among members of the book-makers' trades, this embryo publisher went about the new business. Here her habit of "ready reckoning," her business abilities, and her experience on the *Register* availed her much. She knew her own mind, which was worth to her many times what certain other kinds of knowledge would have been, and no printer or proof-reader or paper-man or binder could make her believe she wanted one thing when she really wanted another. In the matter of arrangement and style of type for the index to the Cook Book she insisted upon using her own judgment and here she had no end of conflicts with the printers.

"It will cost so much," they urged.

"Never mind, I am paying the bill."

"But nobody ever saw such an index."

"Well, you will see one when *this* is printed," laughed the woman. "Go ahead, and follow orders."

She had her way and triumphantly relates that it was the *index* that sold the book.

The Mrs. Duncan whose services had been bespoken began to introduce the book and to the surprise of the author the first edition was speedily exhausted and a second was soon ordered. She had not anticipated sales larger than enough to cover the expense and had planned to give one to each friend who had contributed to its pages. But it sold at sight and is now nearing its one hundred thousandth. This unexpected success is ever looked upon by Mrs. Owens most reverently as a providential supply for the support and education of her children during the period of perplexity and trial darker by far than any through which she had previously passed. While it has not made her rich it has supplied recurring wants and has aided her in securing a pleasant home at Woodlawn Park, one of the most delightful suburbs of Chicago. As the business grew she secured the co-operation of Mr. J. B. Smiley, a most efficient publisher, with whom her relations have been most harmonious and to whom she has for a number of years relegated the major part of the business.

As editor and publisher of the *Journal of Industrial Education* this lady is doing a much needed and creditable work. That magazine represents workers in various lines, such as the manual training schools, the kindergarten, and the kitchen garden and now gives wider utterance to the efforts of that growing adjunct of the World's Fair Congress Auxiliary, the Columbian Association of Housekeepers. Mrs. Owens ranks as one of the representative members of the Illinois Woman's Press Association and besides being one of its delegates in 1891 to the St. Paul Convention of the National Editorial Association, was sent as an honored representative in January of 1892, to the meeting at San Francisco of the International League of Press Clubs. Her work in the Woman's Alliance has been of great value and has been distinguished as her work ever is by a level-headed good sense, absolute fidelity, and strict integrity.

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### HYGIENE IN RELATION TO BEAUTY.

BY DORA R. MILLER.

**A**S women are generally considered to be full of personal vanity, it is to be supposed that an appeal to that would constitute the strongest inducement to lead them to give some time and thought to the practice of the laws of hygiene; and that to tell them that one of the results aimed at in its study is the maintenance and increase of personal beauty would be a strong incentive to that pursuit.

It is related of a certain king of Sparta that when asked what things the young should study he replied, "Those that they will practice when they are grown to maturity." Therefore the laws of health should be of immense value to women, since they are the mothers of the human race, and putting aside all ideas of a small or foolish vanity, the element of beauty and vigor, or vital force, is of untold value as a factor in the happiness and success of life.

We know that the Greeks pursued the practice and culture of physical perfection to so great extent that they carried delicacy like that of nature itself into every kind of imitation, and thus left us those immortal models of form, touched with that wondrous grace and dignity of spirit and body, that remain inimitable for all time, forever representing the ideal perfection of nature. We moderns whose horizon has widened beyond that of the Greeks should even excel them in beauty of form and feature, and should seek to become a strong and beautiful people in whose ranks neither ugliness nor deformity shall be found. For though our more complex civilization brings greater strain with it, there is a corresponding gain of advantages that the ancient world did not possess, and it should be our part to learn how to balance the one against the other. Culture should include a thorough knowledge of the physical side of life and of those things that are the truly natural, beautiful, and pure. Every human being cannot of course possess perfect beauty, but by attention to hygienic laws all may become lovely, easy, powerful.

We are living in a world of wonder and beauty teeming with interest, but to make this interest our own we require both bodily and mental training. Our planet is certainly most nobly

beautiful, fit to be the home of races ideally lovely, and we should see to it that our sons and daughters grow to be in accord with the effulgence of nature around us. But at present it is one of the saddest sights in life to note the early loss of beauty. Let us take note of our own or any other community.

We meet upon our streets each year "the sweet girl graduate" and the university student. *She* is often a vision of ethereal loveliness, and *he* stands tall and fair to look upon. Let seven or eight years pass, and the probability is that if you meet them again they are hardly recognizable; bloom and symmetry are all gone. Why should this be so? Surely it was not intended that life should be lived at such a cost of glowing vitality, and the physiologist knows that it has been mainly caused by dissipation. In common usage the word dissipation has come to be applied to extreme cases of a life given up to pleasure, but in physiology the term is applied to *all* wasteful expenditure of the vital forces, to all excessive exhaustion of the muscular and nervous energy from whatever cause it may come.

Not long since I had occasion to overlook a class of forty girls from ten to fourteen who had presented themselves for examination. They were not children gathered from the slums, but on the contrary represented a certain well-to-do district, yet it was truly a sad spectacle to look on, though not the first time a similar one had been noted. Not a single individual of the class possessed the least share of that grace or freshness which should belong to childhood. They were already losing the last natural teeth they would ever have, they were thin to emaciation, perfectly bloodless in color, with pasty skins, thin dry hair, and dull eyes. Whatever gifts and graces of mind and heart might be their dower, it was clear that in the race of life they would be at an immense disadvantage. It was plain that causes were at work by which vitality was being rapidly dissipated, and no beauty could bloom in their exhausted little bodies, for beauty is usually the product of abundant nutrition. It is not *skin-deep* merely, as the old proverb says; it is *frame-deep*, and muscles, bones, and flesh all play

their part in producing and maintaining it.

Look at the veteran trees of the forest; even when the sap no longer suffices for fruitage, yet the glossy leaf, the flower or bud, the symmetrical branches give beauty to the whole life as it wanes. So should it be with human beings. Old age should come with grace and dignity, with attractions of its own as high in another way as those of youth; for it should bring the impress of all high endeavor; the heart and intellect mellowed like wine by the wide experience that teaches infinite compassion and unflinching bravery, and these should shine through a body where perfect health has preserved all that is possible of physical beauty and power. "Fifty years!" exclaimed Margaret Fuller with her impassioned fervor, "shall they come and pass and bind your brows with no garland, shed in the lamp no drop of ambrosial oil?"

Let mothers see to it that their children are kept "blessed little animals" as long as possible. Protect them from society and give them a fair chance to grow strong. It is not study or work in itself that will injure, but study or work in excess of their powers or surrounding conditions. Give them, as far as possible, an active, out-door life and an easy dress, and the pale blossoms will bloom and glow.

Perhaps you will object that by encouraging in your girls such a life, we should rub off the delicate growth of good breeding which is also of such high value. It is not likely this would be the case because the feelings and manners of a lady are gained by inheritance and the society in which she lives, and cannot be given by drilling or injured by natural movement. Remember this special fact in regard to your daughters, that a much larger reservation and accumulation of vital force is necessitated in girlhood to meet the future cost of motherhood, and that while at first the girl seems to progress faster than the boy, her maximum mental power is reached much later.

If you surround your children, as far as possible, with healthy conditions, the resulting strength will bring with it the ornaments of beauty,—the profusion and sheen of the hair, the light and movement of the eye, the color and clearness of the cheek and lip, the ease of motion, the light step, the symmetrical figure, the graceful carriage, and these charms persistent to old age and transmitted to their descendants. Are not these natural

adornments worth care and time? Not the care that buys cosmetics and other shams, but the care that leads to exercise, to fresh air, to light, to plenty of good food, to sound sleep, to a plentiful use of water both cold and warm, to watchfulness against overeating. These things are not all beyond the reach of workingwomen. In fact those who have the means to secure them all, often fail to do so, either from ignorance, mere thoughtlessness, or false ideas of what is due to appearances. They do not realize the importance of many things that seem very simple, nor comprehend that nature is very slow in many of her operations, but ceaseless, and that they will not immediately see the result of hidden forces that are silently working toward certain ends.

To illustrate: I was once talking to a wealthy woman who had a large family of children and in reply to something she said of their restlessness, I suggested, "Why not let each child sleep alone? Get single beds and you will find an improvement."

"Oh," she flippantly replied, "that would make my bedrooms look like dormitories in a school or hospital."

Of course to one who took such a view of it further words were useless. An artistically arranged home is very desirable but not to be measured against health or comfort. Working people especially should understand that if they are shut out from fresh air during the day, it is the more necessary to get all they can at night. If light is debarred you for six days take all you can get on the seventh.

Right-minded people everywhere are now striving toward the infusion of some leisure into the life of all the working classes, and gradually more and more persons will come to recognize this just claim—the claim to a human life, not a life for any man or woman that is lower than a brute's, because every animal has time to keep his body polished and perfect.

Duty speaks no words more urgent than those which tell of what is conducive to health. There is a solemn injunction which tells us to "work while it is day, for the night cometh." If we desire to leave this heritage of health and beauty to our descendants, let not the daylight of life be clouded by our own folly or neglect, or shortened by disease or sin. Begin early enough the careful training of any young persons, according to hygienic or sanitary law, and the result will almost always follow with the certainty of a mathemat-



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### MOTHERS OF GREAT MEN.

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ical formula that they will grow up fair and pleasant to look upon.

Health may indeed be likened to that wisdom of which Solomon said that she held "in her right hand length of days and in her left, riches and honor." If we listen to her injunctions, when the darkness of an unknown night is closing around us, we shall see a harvest of good that our children's children are to reap, which no variation of fortune can take away. No one can tell how vast a

change might be made on this fair earth if the effort to remove disease, blight, deformity, ugliness, could be successful.

In the battle of modern life, to be a soldier under this banner is to fight in the noblest of conflicts. In this effort every fresh drinking fountain, every public bath-house, every park or open space, every fresh flower, every noble-looking creature, is so much conquered for the God of light and beauty out of the dominion of darkness and death.

### MOTHERS OF GREAT MEN.

BY REV. J. H. MYERS.

THERE is an old Greek proverb which says, "Mighty is the power of motherhood." It finds its expression in a modern saying, "The world needs mothering." This idea of the mother's influence in developing character and in affecting social and national life has thus not escaped the astute and speculative Greek, and is equally clear to the modern sage. This potent factor has come to light in the study of the lives of great men, and is often, doubtless, the hidden influence which, though unrecognized and unpraised, has shaped the life of many a moral giant, who has become a world-mover by the power of his individuality.

Augustine was born 354 A. D. in the village of Tagaste, Numidia. His father retained his heathen faith till near his death. His mother, Monica, was a devout Christian. She prayed unceasingly for the salvation of her son, but for many years it seemed as if her prayers would not be answered. Augustine became absorbed in the study and teaching of rhetoric, and also led a wild life. The faithful mother wrestled with God till she obtained the assurance of His favor, but the answer long delayed sorely tested her persistent but at last triumphant faith.

In her distress the faithful mother went to her bishop with her sorrow. "Wait," said he, "your son's heart is not now disposed to receive the truth. Wait the Lord's good time," and to keep her heart from breaking, and to encourage her in prayer, he said, "Go on praying; the child of so many prayers cannot perish." In his after "Confessions"

Augustine severely chastises himself for his wanderings.

From his nineteenth to his twenty-eighth year he followed the heretical sect of the Manichæans. "Nearly nine years passed," he says, "in which I wallowed in the slime of that deep pit and the darkness of falsehood, striving often to rise, but being all the more heavily dashed down." The mother prayed on and exhorted. His heart was restless and ill at ease. He learned by experience the truth of the maxim, which he afterwards placed upon the opening page of his "Confessions," "Thou hast formed us for Thyself, and our hearts are restless till they find rest in Thee."

In this troubled condition of heart he came to Milan as teacher of rhetoric in 384. His departure was against his mother's wish. He says in his "Confessions," "But why I went hence, and went thither, Thou knowest, O God, yet showedst it neither to me nor my mother, who grievously bewailed my journey, and followed me as far as the sea. But I deceived her, as she held me by force, that either she might keep me back, or go with me; and I feigned that I had a friend whom I could not leave, till he had a fair wind to sail. And I lied to my mother, and to such a mother, and escaped."

The preaching and instruction of Ambrose, Bishop of Milan, had a powerful influence in the conversion of Augustine. His mother also followed him to Milan, and continued her prayers and entreaties. His conviction deepened, and as he longed to be free from his degradation, the voice of a child, which seemed

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to come from a neighboring house, directed him to the Scriptures, "Put ye on the Lord Jesus Christ, and make no provision for the flesh, to fulfill the lusts thereof." He believed. Gloom and doubt disappeared. He was a new man. This was in 386. The true nobility and greatness of his character now began to be manifest. In 396 he was made Bishop of Hippo in Africa, and became the father of theology, to whom both Catholic and Protestant do reverence. Monica, having seen her prayers answered, and having lived only for this one thing, to see her son converted, quietly faded from sight. She died the year following Augustine's conversion. The church owes much to Monica.

**ANTHUSA, CHRYSOStOM.** John Chrysostom was the greatest orator and commentator of the Eastern Church, and has few rivals even to the present time in the esteem of the church. The name Chrysostom was given by his admirers and means "Golden-mouthed." He was born at Antioch, 347 A. D. His father, a distinguished military officer, died while John was an infant. His mother, Anthusa, left a widow at twenty, refused all offers of marriage, and devoted her entire life and being to the education of her son and his older sister.

Anthusa was a woman of rare excellence and held in the highest esteem. Her devotion, learning, and beauty of character led Libanius, the heathen philosopher and famous teacher of rhetoric, to exclaim, "What wonderful women there are among the Christians!" Chrysostom became a pupil of Libanius, who was also the teacher of many great men both heathen and Christian. Some boys try to forget their mother's training when they go to college, but Chrysostom did not. Libanius found his mind so well stored with Holy Scripture that he could not persuade him into heathenism, while he taught him classical wisdom. When this great teacher was asked whom he would like for his successor, he said, "John, if the Christians had not carried him away."

John first chose the calling of an advocate, but he soon felt that it was not congenial. His heart yearned for the service of religion. The entreaties of his mother detained him at Antioch till after her death, when he joined himself to the monks of the mountains near his native city, where he spent six years in seclusion. Loss of health caused him to return to Antioch where he was ordained

presbyter, and at once attracted attention as a pulpit orator.

In 397 Chrysostom was elected archbishop of Constantinople, the highest position in the church. Here he spent sixteen years, having a world-wide fame as preacher and a plain and practical expounder of Scripture. His head was not turned by flattery of courtiers or even by the favors of the emperor and empress. He boldly and resolutely denounced sin in palace and hovel, visiting with fearless and scathing denunciations the intrigues and corruptions of the court itself.

His faithfulness finally cost him his life. His enemies obtained his exile, and he died in 407 from exposure upon his journey to a distant and inhospitable region of Asia. The names of his persecutors are almost forgotten, but the names of Chrysostom and Anthusa will ever be precious to the church.

**MARY, THE MOTHER OF WASHINGTON.**

Mary Ball, the mother of Washington, was a woman of remarkable beauty. She also possessed sterling qualities of character, which reappear in her distinguished son. The following are some of her maxims:

"Obedience and truthfulness are cardinal virtues to be cultivated."

"Good family government assures good civil government. We must learn to obey before we know how to govern."

"There is something very tender and impressive in the lesson, 'Children obey your parents in the Lord; for this is right. Honor thy father and mother, which is the first commandment with promise.' A longer and better life is promised to those who obey their parents, and it must be because they are led to God thereby."

"The consequences of disobedience as threatened in the Scriptures are fearful. There could scarcely be more startling words than these, 'The eye that mocketh at his father, and despiseth to obey his mother, the ravens of the valley shall pick it out, and the young eagles shall eat it.' Disobedience to and irreverence for parents must be wicked indeed, to warrant such a threatening."

Mrs. Washington learned the happy secret of family government according to Scripture. George Washington always acknowledged that he owed more to faithful maternal example and training than he did to any other influence. Matronly reserve and motherly authority never departed from the mother

even after her son became illustrious. Washington rendered to his venerable mother the most dutiful obedience while she lived, and exhibited great reverence and love for her. In nothing is the beauty of his character more apparent.

A friend and playmate of George in his boyhood thus describes the mother: "I was often there with George, his playmate, schoolmate, and young man's companion. Of the mother I was ten times more afraid than I ever was of my own parents. She awed me in the midst of her kindness, for she was, indeed, truly kind. I have often been present with her sons, proper, tall fellows, too, and we were all as mute as mice, and even now, when time has whitened my locks, and I am the grandparent of a second generation, I could not behold that remarkable woman without feelings it is impossible to describe. Whoever has seen that awe-inspiring air and manner so characteristic in the Father of his Country, will remember the matron as she appeared when the presiding genius of her well-ordered household, commanding and being obeyed."

There was one volume upon which, next to the Bible, Mrs. Washington largely relied in her family instructions. It was "Sir Matthew Hale's Contemplations, Moral and Divine." Its precepts doubtless had a large influence in shaping the character of George. She was a very resolute woman, and exercised great self-control in the presence of difficulties and danger, with the exception of fear of lightning, caused by a stroke which early in her life caused the death of a companion at her side.

The death of her husband was a crushing blow, she being left with five children, the oldest but eleven. But her Christian faith triumphed, and she bravely faced the new responsibilities. A large property was left to her children to be controlled by her till each came of age. Friends offered to assist her. "No," she said, "God has put the responsibility upon me by the death of my husband, and I must meet it. He will give me wisdom and strength as I need it. In ourselves we are weak, and can do but little, but by the help of God we are made equal to the demands of duty."

"Equal to all that comes within the bounds of reason," replied a relative.

"Certainly, and the demands of duty are always within the bounds of reason," said Mrs. Washington.

She executed her great trust with fidelity and success. Her good sense, great tenderness, watchfulness, and exacting deference triumphed, and she lived to see her children fill honorable positions and her eldest son illustrious.

When the news of the crossing of the Delaware came to her, raising her hands heavenward she exclaimed, "Thank God! thank God for the success."

"The country is profoundly grateful to your son for his achievements," suggested one, "and the praise of his countrymen knows no bounds."

"I have no doubt that George deserves well of his country, but, my good sir, here is too much flattery," was her reply.

"No flattery at all, but deserved praise."

"Well, I have no fears about George," she replied, "he will not forget the lessons I have taught him,—he will never forget *himself*, though he is the subject of so much praise."

Her son-in-law, Fielding, importuned her in her old age to let him assist in the business affairs. At length she yielded so far as to say, "Fielding, you may keep my books in order, as your eyesight is better than mine, but leave the executive management to me."

After the surrender of Cornwallis, Washington despatched a special messenger with the news to his mother. Friends and neighbors assembled to honor her.

"Bless God," she said, "the war will now be ended, and peace and independence and happiness bless the country."

"Your son is the most illustrious general in the world!" remarked one. "The nation idolizes him," said another. "The soldiers almost worship him," exclaimed a third. "The savior of his country," cried a fourth, desiring to please the mother.

But these fine phrases did not seem to please her, but rather to annoy her, as she felt that the Divine blessing was forgotten. She had not forgotten Providence. Every day it had been her custom to retire to a secluded place and pour out her heart in prayer for her son and her country.

After Washington's return she said, "God has answered my prayers, George, and I praise Him that I see your face again."

"Yes, my dear mother, God has indeed heard your prayers, and the thought that you were interceding for me at the throne of grace was always an inspiration to me," was the answer.

When her son retired to Mt. Vernon at the close of the war, he desired his mother to leave her home at Fredericksburg and reside with him, saying, "You are too aged and infirm to live alone, and I can have no greater pleasure than to have you in my family."

"I feel truly grateful for your kindness, George, but I enjoy my mode of life. I think it is according to the direction of Providence."

"It would not be in opposition to Providence, if you should come to live with me."

"Nevertheless, I must decline. I thank you from the bottom of my heart for your interest and love, but *I feel fully competent to take care of myself.*"

There she remained, and died August 25, 1789, dying as she had lived, with cheerful resignation to the Divine will. Upon her monument are inscribed the simple but eloquent words, "Mary the Mother of Washington."

THE MOTHER OF VICTOR HUGO. Victor Hugo was born at Besançon in 1802. He was a frail infant whose life was long despaired of. Hugo himself describes his infancy in poetic lines :

"A little babe so frail and so weak,

It seemed to come to life its death to seek."

He remained so sickly that for fifteen months his shoulders seemed incapable of supporting the weight of his head, of which it has been said, "as if already containing the germs of mighty thoughts that were awaiting their development, it could not be prevented from falling prone upon his breast." But Madame Hugo with her characteristic perseverance succeeded in rescuing her child from the very grasp of death. He lived to grow up to a life of rare vigor both physical and intellectual, and to impart spiritual quickening to thousands of hearts.

Hugo's father being a general, several moves of the family were necessitated during his childhood. He left his native place while an infant. In 1808, during the excitement of the Napoleonic wars, the Hugo family took up their residence in Paris, in a quiet quarter, at the end of a kind of *cul-de-sac* called the "Impasse des Feuillantines." Here was a comfortable house and a spacious garden with a grove of trees, where Victor and his two older brothers delighted to play. Hugo thus describes it :

"Large was the garden, weird its pathways all,  
From curious eyes concealed by upreared wall ;

The flowers, like opening eyelids, peeped around,

Vermilion insects paced the stony ground ;

Mysterious buzzing filled the sultry air ;

Here a mere field, a somber thicket there."

Madame Hugo lived a most retired life, entertaining none but a few intimate friends, and devoting herself to her children. Strict yet tender, grave yet gentle, conscientious, well informed, vigilant, and thoroughly impressed with the importance of her maternal duties, she was a woman of superior intelligence. She is said to have possessed much of that masculine disposition which Plato would have described as "royal."

Much care and pains were devoted to the training of her children, and to Victor in particular. Prominent among the features of her training were tenderness, accompanied with a measure of reserve, undisputed and systematic discipline, and grave discourse replete with instruction. Her teaching was vigorous and wholesome, and she did her part to make her sons men of true nobility of character.

Her every direction was obeyed unhesitatingly without a question, and every word listened to with respect. There were many fruit trees in the garden. The boys were forbidden to touch the fruit.

"But what if it falls?" asked Victor.

"Leave it on the ground."

"And what if it is getting rotten?"

"Let it get rotten."

This was all. The children did not touch the fruit ; so far as they were concerned it might rot.

Lelande, the astronomer, owned the house and lived next door, only a slight trellis work separating the gardens. Fearing annoyance from the boys, he proposed to erect a substantial partition.

"You need not be afraid," said the mother, "my boys will not trespass upon your property. I have forbidden them." None of them was ever known to transgress in this matter.

In coming from school the boys had to pass many children playing in the street, but their mother had forbidden them to stop to play with them, which they never did, though Victor sometimes cast longing eyes toward their sports.

The fondly loved mother died June 27, 1821, the young Victor already having entered upon



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BY CHISEL AND PLUCK.

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his wonderful career of literary glory. He could at first scarce realize the great loss of mother love,

"the love that none forgets,  
The bread which God divides and multiplies,  
A table ever spread where bounteous grace  
To each his portion gives, to none denies."

He had lost the one who above all others had inspired in his soul a love for the beautiful and reverence for the good. Late in the night of the day of the funeral he continued to walk the cemetery, choked with sobs, recalling his mother's image, and again and again repeating her name.

BY CHISEL AND PLUCK.

BY ELISE BARANIUS.

Translated from the "Frauenberuf" for "The Chautauquan."

**A**MONG my most interesting visits in Paris in 1889 made officially or privately in connection with the International Congress of Woman's Works and Institutions, is the visit to the Bertaux studio, 147 avenue de Villiers.

Here Mr. and Mrs. Bertaux worked together as sculptors. The former incidentally remarked to me, "It is very delightful for us to have the same ideal and to share our work. My wife, however, possesses the higher talent." This statement cannot be denied, as a statue by Mrs. Bertaux was awarded first prize at the World's Fair, and in Luxemburg another one stands as public property. After the death of Mr. Bertaux the works then on exhibition were placed in the Louvre. So the sculptress at that time gained some historical immortality and perpetuated the name of her husband.

Mrs. Bertaux was born in 1828. She received her first suggestions and instruction in the studio of her stepfather, Mr. Herbert Pierre, and at an early age acquired skill in her artistic profession. Though at first her efforts were confined to decorative executions on chandeliers, statuettes, etc., very soon her talents aspired to greater tasks. After her marriage with her gifted contemporary in art, Mrs. Bertaux worked as a pupil of her husband until her creative genius opened a new path for her.

The many prizes awarded to her establish the fame of her statuary. Orders for church statuary and reliefs, likewise secular groups have been executed by her hand and Mrs. Bertaux now stands at the top round of success. But the laurels have been acquired by vehement work, for while household duties have drained upon the forces of the sculptress, difficulties and humiliations have also beset

her. The first arose from the circumstance that Mrs. Bertaux had to battle for existence before her work had attained for her prosperity and recognition. The humiliations arose from her sex, on account of which hardships were heaped upon her. The French School of Fine Arts is a fosterer of arts but only male pupils find there free instruction and support in their further endeavors. Female pupils are excluded. Mrs. Léon Bertaux' education has cost the country to which she belongs, nothing.

A less important talent, and a less important character would not have come out victoriously through all these calamities. This Mrs. Léon Bertaux fully comprehends and therefore tries to open up for the coming generation of women the paths which she trod under such unfavorable circumstances. In 1881 she founded the Union of Women Painters and Sculptors. The very next year an exhibition of this art woman's union took place. In 1883 the founder was chosen president of the society, which numbered about three hundred members. The union's headquarters are in Paris, 147 avenue de Villiers. In her capacity of president of the union Mrs. Bertaux entered the Paris congress. Her chief demand was that women should be allowed to compete for prizes on the same footing as men, which privilege hitherto had been denied. The *Prix de Rome*, which was the one in question, was attended with a rich income for study in Italy, and a boarding-school recently established there made the distinction especially sought after. It is natural that the artists should try to keep to themselves the accustomed privileges; on the other hand it is comprehensible that Mrs. Bertaux as artist and leader of the woman's union should desire the competition opened to women.

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Plainly this woman may besaid to promote equal rights of the sexes in art, because she has shown that in spite of exclusion from halls of learning she has prospered and has brought herself up to a high art standard, and to-day she finds recognition as one of the first sculptors of the time. Mrs. Léon Bertaux in referring to equal opportunity in art for men and women, speaks of it not as a favor but as a right.

The works which have made the sculptress immortal are "la fille au papillon" and a Psyche. The former stands among the few statues of the museum in Luxemburg. It is a charming, graceful work of art with a pleasing cast of features, representing a young girl reposing after a bath. The sting of an insect has roused the slender form from rest. The upper part of the body is raised on an arm, the body is turned, and the wondering, searching eyes are directed toward the small winged creature on her shoulder. The hair pinned up high for the bath lies loose on the lovely neck, waving over the head and falling in ringlets about the forehead. Mrs. Léon Bertaux got her inspiration for the statue from Victor Hugo's verses, in which he speaks of the maid reposing in a secluded, leafy bower, who is startled by the touch of an insect.

The freshness of youth is exquisitely represented in this work: a bud in unfolding beauty! And yet in this statue Mrs. Léon Bertaux's genius is not fully displayed—she attained a higher development. There are several criticisms to be made on "la fille au papillon." The attitude, beautiful as it may be in itself is not wholly natural, it is studied.

The Psyche is complete in finish, wholly true to nature and that nature ideal. It is

the blending of a sublime human thought with the object produced by that thought. There can be no doubt of the purity embodied in Psyche. The girlish figure stands lost in thought, idly holding a lamp in her hand. The figure is expressive beyond description. About to disobey by investigating the identity of her lover, her whole being bespeaks her questioning mood. In this creation Mrs. Léon Bertaux seems to have expressed all possible grace and purity. Nothing piquant charms—the devoutness in the representation suggests only devoutness.

The realistic school shows magnanimity because above everything it demands a full possession of technique, seeking exact truthness to nature. The idealists, who without mastery of brush or chisel, without study of the antique and nature, seek to soar into the higher regions, have created ideal forms, which sometimes one recognizes as such only by the combinations and embellishing attributes. Art has often been violated by denoting angel-purity by goose wings and feathers. Such means Mrs. Léon Bertaux does not use. She is realistic in her execution, in which she is so proficient that she lends to the form whatever she wishes to express as most ideal. The interesting Bertaux studio shows Psyche in the different stages of the simple natural copies of nature up to the completed form of the ideal figure.

This artist works not only with her own hand. For years she has gathered about her a circle of women students who are studying to become teachers. As instructor she has as great a practice as a professional artist. But the most fortunate thing in the life of this noted woman is that she found in her husband a most sacrificing and unselfish admirer.

## A STORY FROM THE KALEVALA.

BY NELLIE FRANCES MILBURN.

THE translation of the Kalevala, the National Epic of Finland, into English, by Dr. John Martin Crawford, of Cincinnati, was to most English-speaking people, a revelation of a hitherto unknown collection of folk songs and stories of matchless beauty.

The Finns are supposed to be one of the oldest nations of the world and their origin is

lost in the misty traditions of prehistoric times. Their country is a peninsular-like projection of the northwest corner of Europe, and thus their geographic position has made them a somewhat isolated people. This has given them a strong and interesting individuality, a mythology and religion like that of no other country, and many peculiar national customs. The Kalevala, which means

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"the land of heroes," is a record of the traditions of the wonderful deeds and adventures of Finland's ancient heroes, and contains many folk-tales and superstitions, as well as magical incantations, and strange fancies regarding the origin of fire, the creation of the world, and other subjects which give full rein to poetic imagery. These legends were repeated from one to another and were kept alive by merely oral transmission for many hundreds of years and were never put into written form until within the last century.

I like to think of the romantic age when these beautiful songs were known by only the Finnish people. I can picture the old minstrel with his harp, occupying the place of honor at marriage festivals, and singing the melodious wedding songs of Wainamoinen; or the gray-haired grandmother, gathering the children of the household around the fireside, and recounting tales of magic and witchcraft until the frightened little ones were afraid to go to bed; or the youthful bard in the market place at great country fairs or on feast days, stirring the youth of Finland to daring deeds by the recital of the marvelous exploits of Finland's ancient warriors.

So the songs of the Kalevala drifted down the ages, each bard or singer adding some new story or throwing varied shades of meaning into the classic tales.

Finnish scholars began to appreciate the importance of these legends and a few scattered poems were transcribed and published in the early part of this century; more as curiosities, however, than because of their intrinsic merit.

About fifty years ago, Zacharias Topelius and Elias Lönnrot, both practicing physicians and celebrated scholars of Finland, formed the plan of collecting the fragmentary songs and stories of the Kalevala into one harmonious and continuous narrative. Topelius spent the last eleven years of his life in bed, the victim of an incurable disease, but under these trying circumstances he accomplished a noble work. He sent for famous Finnish singers to come to his bedside and sing the old ballads, which he patiently transcribed as they were uttered.

Lönnrot left an honorable position in the University of Finland to travel into the wild Northland, and going among the peasants, rowing on the lakes with the fishermen, watching flocks with the shepherds, and talk-

ing with old men in the evening hour, he learned much of old-time habits and customs and added to the already valuable collection of Dr. Topelius. He endured many hardships and had many dangerous adventures, while crossing lakes of ice on his reindeer sledge, during the long, dark winter, or floating down unexplored streams in his little canoe, during the short summer, but he was more than repaid for all this by the enthusiasm with which his work was greeted on its publication in 1840.

The Kalevala was soon translated into Swedish, French, and German, and attracted the attention of students of literature. Dr. Crawford says that his interest was aroused in it while a student in college, and when, after years of successful practice as a physician, he gained time to indulge his literary tastes, he set about the work of translating it into English. His translation is a work of remarkable clearness and beauty and reproduces the charm of the great original.

The principal hero of the Kalevala is Wainamoinen, a minstrel with a voice so powerful and melodious that it gave him the skill of a magician. Several of his songs, such as were sung at marriage feasts, are given in the many legends which tell of his wonderful deeds. One of my favorites is the rune that relates the encounter and trial of skill between Wainamoinen, the ancient, well-loved singer, and Youkahainen, the young and presumptuous bard of Lapland. There is an old feud between the Finns and Laplanders and the constant repetition of such tales as this must have tended to increase the bitter feeling between the two neighboring countries.

The rune opens with a description of the love and reverence with which Wainamoinen was regarded by his people and relates that his fame spread to Lapland and once at a public feast where Youkahainen was the chief singer, some one told of Wainamoinen, the wonderful minstrel of the Kalevala. Inflamed with youthful conceit, Youkahainen was angered that anyone should be thought superior to himself, and pettishly left the banquet and hastened home, and told his father and mother that he had determined to go to the Northland and have a contest in singing with Wainamoinen and thus prove who was the better singer.

His parents pointed out the folly of going to a strange land to compete with an old and

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practiced musician and a magician of such wonderful power, and warned Youkahainen that Wainamoinen would turn him to stone or ice with the magic of his voice. Youkahainen, however, was not to be turned from his purpose and answered them quite as we might expect one of our young Americans to do :

"Good the judgment of a father,  
Better still, a mother's counsel,  
Best of all, one's own decision."

Extensive preparations were then made for the journey. He took his magic fleet-footed horse, with fire streaming from its nostrils and sparks flying from its hoofs, his sledge, beautifully decorated with gold, and his pearl-enameled whip. He traveled northward three days and at last, just at twilight, entered the plains of Kalevala, where he met Wainamoinen riding along the highway. Youkahainen urged his horse to its utmost speed and dashed down upon the peaceful and unsuspecting Wainamoinen. A collision between the two sleighs naturally followed and in the general entanglement both teams were brought to a stand still. Wainamoinen in righteous indignation inquired the meaning of this rude and reckless driving and asked the name of his opponent. Youkahainen told his name and country in a boastful and insulting manner. Wainamoinen then mildly said that he, being young, should give place to his seniors, whereupon Youkahainen spoke as follows :

"Young or ancient, little matter,  
Little consequence the age is ;  
He that higher stands in wisdom,  
He whose knowledge is the greater,  
He that is the sweeter singer,  
He alone shall keep the highway,  
And the other take the roadside.  
Art thou ancient Wainamoinen,  
Famous sorcerer and minstrel ?  
Let us then begin our singing,  
Let us sing our ancient legends,  
Let us chant our garnered wisdom,  
That the one may hear the other,  
That the one may judge the other,  
In a war of wizard sayings."

In contrast with his authoritative and presumptuous manner, Wainamoinen modestly answered :

"What I know is very little,  
Hardly is it worth the singing,  
Neither is my singing wondrous :  
All my days I have resided

In the cold and dreary Northland,  
In a desert land enchanted,  
In my cottage home for ages ;  
All the songs that I have gathered,  
Are the cuckoo's simple measures,  
Some of these I may remember ;  
But since thou perforce demandest,  
I accept thy boastful challenge.  
Tell me now, my golden youngster,  
What thou knowest more than others,  
Open now thy store of wisdom."

On this invitation, Youkahainen repeated many familiar maxims and bits of worldly wisdom, but Wainamoinen requested something more original and philosophical. Youkahainen then sang legends of the origin of fire and water, and of the various metals, and of the comparative ages of different trees and rocks, to which Wainamoinen listened in smiling scorn. At last, made furious by Wainamoinen's quite apparent contempt, he began to boast of his own wisdom and sang :

"I can tell thee still a trifle,  
Tell thee of the times primeval,  
When I plowed the salt sea's bosom,  
When I hoed the sea-girt islands,  
When I dug the salmon grottoes,  
Hollowed out the deepest caverns,  
When I all the lakes created,  
When I heaped the mountains round them,  
When I piled the rocks about them.  
I was present as a hero,  
Sixth of wise and ancient heroes,  
Seventh of primeval heroes,  
When the heavens were created,  
When the moon was placed in orbit,  
When the silver sun was planted ;  
When the Bear was firmly stationed,  
And with stars the heavens were  
sprinkled."

Wainamoinen was shocked at his audacity and reproved him for his untruthfulness. Youkahainen then challenged Wainamoinen to a sword combat, but Wainamoinen contemptuously refused to measure swords with such a vain and trifling braggart. Youkahainen then dared him to show what he could do, so Wainamoinen seated himself by the roadside upon a large rock and began to sing and the marvelous effect of his singing is told as follows :

"Self-composed he broke his silence  
And began his wondrous singing ;  
Sang he not the tales of childhood,  
Children's nonsense, wit of women,  
Sang he rather bearded heroes,



That the children never heard of  
That the boys and maidens knew not.

Grandly sang wise Wainamoinen  
Till the copper-bearing mountains  
And the flinty rocks and ledges,  
Heard his magic tones and trembled;  
Mountain cliffs were torn to pieces,  
All the ocean heaved and trembled;  
And the distant hills re-echoed,  
And the boastful Youkahainen,  
Is transfixed in silent wonder,  
And his sledge with golden trimmings,  
Floats like brushwood on the billows,  
Lo, his birch whip, pearl enameled,  
Floats a reed upon the border,  
Lo, his steed with golden forehead,  
Stands a statue on the water;  
Still the minstrel sings enchantment,  
And his dog with bended muzzle,  
Is a block of stone beside him,  
And alas for Youkahainen,  
Sings him into deeps of quicksand;  
Ever deeper, deeper, deeper,  
In his torture, sinks the wizard,  
To his belt in mud and water."

Like all boasters, Youkahainen was humbled when he found his master, and, frightened by the magical powers of the minstrel, he began to plead for mercy and as he sank lower and lower into the quicksand, offered in turn his two magic crossbows at home, his two beautiful boats, his two fast race horses and many bags of gold if Waina-

moinen would only release him from this terrible plight, but Wainamoinen still went on with his singing, doubtless thinking to teach him a lesson, and the foolish fellow sank deeper and still deeper into the quicksand, until at last, driven to desperation, just as his chin was covered, he offered as a bribe his beautiful sister Aino as a wife to Wainamoinen, if he would only cease his singing. Horses, ships, barns full of grain, and heaps of gold had no attraction for Wainamoinen who with his magic skill could produce all these at his desire, but the prospect of gaining as a bride the lovely Aino pleased him greatly.

The riddle is easy to read,—that love will win where wisdom, power, and wealth may fail.

"Wainamoinen  
Sits upon the rock of gladness,  
Sings a little, sings and ceases,  
Sings again, and sings a third time,  
Thus to break the spell of magic,  
Thus to lessen the enchantment,  
Thus the potent charm to banish.  
And the magic spell is broken,  
Youkahainen, sad, but wiser,  
Drags his feet from out the quicksand,  
Lifts his beard from out the water,  
From the rock leads forth his courser,  
Brings his sledge back from the rushes,  
Calls his whip back from the water,  
Sets his golden sledge in order,  
Throws himself upon the cross bench,  
Snaps his whip and hies him homeward."

RAPHAEL'S SAINT CECILIA.

BY JENNIE M. BINGHAM.

I stood before the artist Raphael's dream,  
His dream on canvas, where Cecilia stands,  
With rapt face, listening to the angels sing;  
The organ slips from out her listless hands;  
And instruments of music, broken, lie  
About her feet; no more they satisfy.

Aye, Raphael, thou hast told the story well,  
When once the choral songs of heaven break  
Upon our ears, we, too, let go earth's joys,  
And reach our hands that better things would take,  
Content to lose earth's feeble melody,  
If so, we gain heaven's blessed harmony.

## EDITOR'S OUTLOOK.

### THE LIBERAL TENDENCY OF THE TIMES.

LIBERALISM is spreading itself through all our methods in political and church organizations. Sometimes a liberalist calls himself a reformer. In England he is a member of the Liberal party. There is enough of this spirit abroad in America to-day to grow a liberal political party and a liberal church, and if any great new church organization is effected in the near future, this is the name by which it should be designated. Justice Jackson of the Supreme Court is a Democrat and was nominated for this high office by a Republican president and confirmed by a Republican Senate, and before this impression of THE CHAUTAUQUAN is in the hands of its readers the Hon. Walter Q. Gresham, who for thirty years has been a Republican and at times a much talked of candidate for the Republican nomination for the presidency, will have been nominated for secretary of state by President Cleveland and confirmed by a Democratic Senate. This exchange of courtesies in high places between the leaders of the two dominant political parties is exceptional in spirit and practice in the history of these organizations. Other manifestations of political liberalism may be called to mind at the reader's leisure.

In the religious world this spirit is still more common. Bishop Phillips Brooks belonged to a very liberal school in the Protestant Episcopal Church and his election to the episcopacy in Massachusetts gave new force to his views, but his death leaves Dr. Heber Newton as one of the chief men to represent this tendency among Episcopalians. Doctors Briggs and Smith bear the banner of liberalism in the very front rank of the Presbyterian host, and Mr. Spurgeon, whose death has been mourned in all the world, was rather an open communist among the Baptists.

It is often said in New England that it is difficult to tell where Unitarianism ends and Congregationalism begins. Dr. —, now the regular preacher in one of the most distinguished pulpits in this country, was asked by a friend, "What church are you connected with?" He replied, "When I am in New England I am a Congregationalist,

but when in Pennsylvania I am a Presbyterian." We can count more than a score of men serving as rectors in the Protestant Episcopal Church who were once Methodist preachers. It is very easy for a clergyman to cross the lines, going from one denomination to another, and then even returning to the church of his first love. The eminent Dr. Mark Trafton of Boston once served the Congregational Church in Springfield for three years as pastor, mainly because his personal friend Dr. J. H. Holland wanted him, then he went back to the Methodist Church where he remains to this day. Dr. John P. Newman in the midst of his years as a minister served the Congregational Church for a time in New York City, succeeding Dr. Geo. P. Hepworth, now editor-in-chief of the New York *Herald*. He then returned to the Methodist Church and was elected a bishop.

Mgr. Satolli fresh from the Vatican in Rome gives the impression to the public mind that the Romish Church will cease its opposition to, and become the friend of, our common schools; and this church has just founded a Chautauqua Summer Assembly on the shores of Lake Champlain where in the freest, most liberal fashion will be taught literature and history, philosophy and religion, and many other good things of this life.

The liberal spirit in the churches is growing and moving great bodies of people nearer together. Among laymen social influences often determine their choice of a church home, indicating that social considerations are more potential than the creed of the denomination or its form of church government.

The literature of some churches as well as the preaching does not seem to be scrutinized very closely when the old doctrines are the subjects of discussion.

The fact is, an error must be of very large size and presented baldly, and frequently, as a sort of menace to established orthodoxy, to have the challenge accepted and an issue joined. The man who veers from the fundamental tenets of his church as a teacher, must possess commanding talents, have a large following of his own people, and get the ear of the public outside of his congregation to attract any attention as an oracle of heresy.

The reasons for this are plain. Christianity is progressive, it is far in front of error in the public mind. It is entrenched in the confidence, sympathies, and customs of the people, and a tremendous army of heretics firing their charges of heresy cannot reasonably hope to dislodge it.

This is the chief reason for a lack of discipline to correct preachers who are wayward. The church has a sublime faith in the spirit and letter of the Bible. She depends upon her faith and the Book to win, and she is unwilling to squander time in hair-splitting controversies over the errors of individual preachers. This is one of the glorious triumphs of Christianity in these days, but the world calls it liberalism.

We may trace this liberal spirit both in politics and religion back more than thirty years, when church lines were sharply drawn in this country and orthodoxy was a great word in the Christian's vocabulary. There was a rigid adherence to fundamental doctrine as laid down in the creeds, and a man's influence in his denomination was gauged by his loyalty to the big word orthodoxy. The liberal spirit of to-day is a reaction from the rigid policy of those times. The theological pendulum has swung to the other side of the ecclesiastical clock, and the same thing is true in politics. It is a reaction from what was called disloyalty and treason thirty odd years ago.

The spirit in which great differences were settled at the close of the Civil War was a lesson in liberal dealing on the part of men who differed radically and in the most forcible ways from each other. Grant's kindly treatment of General Lee, Horace Greeley's favor to Jefferson Davis, when he signed his bail bond, together with the amnesty the North gave to the leaders of the South, introduced the idea of toleration and the spirit of forbearance into a bloody arena and helped to make peace. It was a lesson to political parties and to the churches of the land which they have been learning and practicing for three decades, until we see the word liberal as the name of one of the chief tendencies of the times.

#### OUR GOLD AND SILVER CENTERS.

It will surprise many people to learn that over \$2,000,000 worth of mineral products is taken out of the earth in this favored land

every working day in the year. A little more than half of this enormous product is non-metallic and about one third of the metallic output is gold and silver. In other words the gold and silver industry is now adding to the wealth of the nation about \$100,000,000 a year.

Anyone who studies the voluminous gold and silver statistics gathered for the last census by Mr. R. P. Rothwell and his assistants is impressed by some striking facts. One is that not one sixteenth of the so-called mines in this country are as yet productive. There are at least 100,000 "claims" or "locations," but only about 6,000 mines are yielding gold and silver or employing labor. These 6,000 mines are yielding over a quarter of all the gold and nearly half of all the silver that the world is now producing, though only twenty-eight of them have an annual output of more than \$500,000 apiece.

Another interesting fact is that the value of our gold product is almost exactly one third and of our silver product two thirds the value of our total output. In the producing mines nearly one half the value of the output is paid for labor and other items in the cost of production; and if we count in the money expended upon legitimate mines that are not yet productive there is no doubt of the accuracy of Senator Stewart's conclusion that the cost of production is greater than the coinage value of the product. It is the chance of winning a prize that induces thousands to put money into mines that, on an average, are not a profitable investment; and yet if the gambling element is eliminated gold and silver mining is not necessarily unprofitable but becomes one of the most paying of industries. While mining has not been profitable to thousands who have invested capital without reasonable precautions it has been of enormous advantage to the country and has brought prosperity and population to our western states and territories.

We are impressed with the fact that we have hardly yet begun to scratch the surface of our enormous resources in gold and silver. Arizona offers the greatest possibilities, though its output has long been stationary, owing to its lack of railroad facilities. New Mexico has not even been explored by prospectors, as yet, except in small areas. Many promising discoveries have been made that cannot be developed until transportation

facilities are extended. There are large mining areas in Wyoming that as yet are merely rich specimen districts. One of the main mountain ranges in the state where, unless all indications are at fault, the best mines should be found, is as yet only partly prospected. Many of the best districts in Idaho cannot yet be touched because railroads have not penetrated them. It is the rapid extension of the railroad system that has given such an impetus to the precious metal output of Colorado and placed it first among the producing states; and yet so much has been done in a short time in Idaho, Montana, New Mexico, Oregon, and South Dakota that it is believed their possibilities may be even greater, proportionally, than those of Colorado when they have equal transportation facilities. In Oregon and Washington a large amount of the gold product is obtained from workings by poor men in the beds of rivers and gulches and the output would undoubtedly soon be quadrupled with more systematic and effective mining.

California still leads all the gold-producing states. No country in the world ever showed placers so rich and extensive, and they are still far from being exhausted. Her gold product of over \$12,000,000 in 1889 was more than three times as great as that of Colorado, Montana, Nevada, or South Dakota, which as gold-producing states are nearly even in the race. It is Colorado's \$24,000,000 of silver a year that puts her first among the mining states in the last census, her silver output exceeding that of Montana by \$6,000,000, while the next largest competitor is Utah with over \$9,000,000 to her credit. Colorado is second as a gold producer, while Montana, Nevada, and South Dakota press her hard.

Alaska looms up in the distance as a gold and silver producer. In eight districts of this extensive territory gold or silver has been found. Low grade ores are the rule, but they are enormous in quantity and so promise permanent if not rapid growth of mining activity. Curiously enough most Alaskan miners carry their gold dust to market themselves and, selling the product in San Francisco, Portland, or Victoria, the states and province in which the sales are made are credited with producing considerable amounts of gold which in reality come from Alaska. This is one among many facts illustrating the difficulty of procuring accurate gold and silver statistics.

Very few of our states are entirely without traces of gold and silver. But in a number of states that are classed among the producers such as Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, and Alabama the output is very small. Most of the hundred or so mines reported from these states are small placer and river mines yielding very small amounts of gold. Only one of these mines produced over \$30,000 worth of bullion in the last year of the census decade.

Nothing is more certain than that our output of silver will go on increasing for years if the market conditions are such that it can be mined at a profit. It is not so evident however that our production of gold will increase. Mining men do not now see any prospect of an increase in gold production. The outlook will of course be changed if large auriferous gravel deposits are discovered or some great gold-bearing bonanza comes to light. It is however the opinion of experts that the gold of the future will be derived more from the treatment of gold-bearing ores and less from gravel mines; that ores, in other words, will replace placers; and the fact that in recent years we have slightly increased our gold output seems to indicate that this country will at least be able to maintain the present volume of the product.

#### THIS YEAR'S DEVELOPMENT OF THE NEW NAVY.

ALTHOUGH it is a matter of general pride with citizens of the United States that we need no standing army, it has been a matter of general regret that we have been deplorably weak as a naval power. Civilization has progressed so far that disputes between individuals are usually settled by rules of recognized law. A pretense of settling international disputes in a similar way is being made constantly, but the fact remains that the dealings of nations with each other rarely know a higher law than brute force. The nation that has the strongest army and the strongest navy is the most respected and is the most potent compeller of peace. Indeed no nation can take rank as a first-class power until it is able to make a show of main strength and cause itself to be respected. Our dealings with other nations, Mexico excepted, must be across the high seas, and so long as force is the manifestation of sovereignty the United States not only must have a navy



sufficiently strong to protect its harbors and coasts from attack, just or unjust, but one able to protect its shipping, soon to become prominent in the world's commerce again, and to assert its sovereignty before other nations.

Ten years ago we ranked fifteenth as a naval power. Indeed we were almost the laughing stock of nations. We could only splutter when imposed upon. We not only had no modern vessels but no means of building any. We had no designs, no designers, no shipbuilding plants and no shipbuilding tools of great magnitude.

All this is changed now. When the vessels at present under construction are finished we shall rank probably fifth as a naval power. But in ability to construct vessels that surpass those of other nations in similar grades we are already foremost. Our new ships are the best fighters of their various classes and invariably the most advanced in details. We have the best armor, the best powder, the best guns in the world, and all this has been accomplished in one third the time that other nations have occupied in the same development.

The year 1893 will be the most important one thus far in the construction of our new navy. The foremost event will be the great sea and harbor demonstration in which nearly a score of our new ships will lead from forty to fifty of those of other nations, including England, France, Spain, and Italy, along the coast from Norfolk to New York, culminating there in an imposing parade and complicated evolutions. No such demonstration has ever occurred. Some of these ships will be able to throw five tons of projectiles at a single discharge. The most complete mastery of wind and water and the fullest use of electricity, chemistry, and mechanics for the purposes of devastation is what one of those vessels will represent. They will be the embodiment of the highest mechanical achievement of man. The great parade will aid in the further development of naval affairs regardless of nationality by comparative work in the evolutions.

Another event of the year will be the trial trip of the armored cruiser *New York*, of which Secretary Tracy has said: "This magnificent vessel is the best all around vessel of any type." She is not the largest, not the swiftest, not the heaviest armed or armored vessel of the world's navies. She is simply

the most aggressive boat afloat, and will be able to fight any vessel of any class. She must have a speed practically equal to that of the *Paris* (formerly *City of Paris*). Her trial trip will reveal her possibilities in that requirement. There is no question as to her fighting capabilities.

The *Indiana*, the first of our real battle ships, was launched late in February. These battle ships, of which we are building three, are to be nearly one third smaller than the monsters of other navies, but of these new boats Secretary Tracy has said: "Their equal as fighting ships does not exist at the present day." They are coast defense ships and intended for fighting near home. They are for defensive purposes merely. They are the products of the Tracy administration exclusively, and the launch of the first of them in the closing days of the administration gave a decided emphasis to the noteworthy achievements of its four years' work.

The final important event of the year will be the trial of the unarmored cruiser *Columbia*, known so long as the *Pirate*. She is to be a vessel, as Mr. Tracy put it, "absolutely without parallel among the warships of the world." She must go at the rate of twenty-one knots an hour, a speed that, of large vessels, only the *Paris* has surpassed, and then in a spurt and under the most favorable conditions. The *Columbia* and her twin sister, the *Minneapolis*, are to be the cowards of the navy. They are intended to run from other war-ships and capture or destroy an enemy's commerce.

There are to be many minor additions to the new navy this year of unarmored cruisers and gunboats and a sharp advance in torpedo warfare, aerial and submarine, must be looked for.

It is rare that any administration sees the completion of a vessel begun under its own direction. Secretary Whitney finished the work which Secretary Chandler planned, and Mr. Tracy did the same for Mr. Whitney. To Mr. Herbert will fall the pleasurable duty of placing in commission the great boats, such as the *New York*, *Columbia*, and *Indiana*, which have been building under the supervision of the Harrison administration. Probably no man of the party now dominant, not even Mr. Whitney excepted, is so well equipped to carry on the work of creating a modern navy as is Mr. Herbert, the new sec-

retary. Year after year in the House of Representatives he has given the most complete support to the various naval secretaries without regard to politics. As chairman of the committee on naval affairs he has become a master of the needs and details of the department, always manifesting a broad and patri-

otic spirit. He will be a worthy successor to Messrs. Whitney and Tracy and was competent to take hold of the work where the latter left off without a day's delay in gaining information on the duties of his office. Altogether it will be a most vital year for our new navy.

### EDITOR'S NOTE-BOOK.

ATTENTION has been directed of late to the weakness of the American navy in the lack of conveniently situated coaling stations. Not only has England the most powerful navy on the seas but her coaling stations in all parts of the world are so located that the British vessels can be used to the best possible advantage for defensive and offensive purposes. An American naval officer recently put the case very pointedly in referring to a possible war between the United States and Great Britain, by showing that British vessels from the Bermudas could begin the bombardment of Charleston, Savannah, and New Orleans within thirty hours and in less than six days a fleet ordered from Halifax could open hostilities on Portland, Boston, and New York. In much less than a week a fleet could be summoned from Esquimalt, B. C., and have Tacoma and Seattle reduced to ashes and then proceed to San Francisco to inaugurate another attack. During the progress of this rather one-sided war on the cities of the Atlantic and Pacific coasts, the modern revenue cutters of the British navy reinforced by other vessels could steam up through the St. Lawrence and Welland Canals and have the commercial centers on the great lakes at their mercy. The British navy is the largest and best equipped on the seas, and at our present rate of progress we could not equal it in the next quarter of a century. It is doubtful even if such a course is desired. The establishment of coaling stations however, that our ships may be used to the best advantage for defensive purposes, is plainly needed for this reason if for no other.

THE Reading Railroad combination has been pressed to the wall. What the courts and legislatures of three states failed in doing has been accomplished by the reckless management of the officers of the pool. The "Reading combine" secured control of

ninety-five per cent of the anthracite coal trade and many dependent industries about a year ago and immediately the output of the mines was restricted and the price of coal raised generally, the country over. To increase the power of the monopoly the Reading principals recently attempted to acquire control of the New York and New England road and suffered financial defeat for their trouble. For two days Wall Street experienced a flurry in Reading stocks and on the third day came the collapse. The combination has fallen of its own weight, a fact which the public does not deplore in the least. If the price of coal is lessened in consequence of the crash real satisfaction will be experienced by thousands of people who have paid exorbitant prices for fuel during the last twelve months.

THE Italian Bank scandals which at first promised to be of short duration have developed huge proportions and while not so enormous as the Panama fraud they have exceeded the expectations of the most suspicious. The six banks permitted by the government to issue paper money exceeded the limit of the law by about \$100,000,000 for which there was no actual security. The true condition of affairs is said to have been known to officials of the government for a long time previous to the public disclosures. Many deputies and ex-ministers are compromised. The people have recovered from the first shock of the scandal and are clamoring for a complete and thorough investigation although there are manifest designs on the part of the ministry to smother the whole affair. The assassination of the mayor of Palermo was probably the work of persons who feared the disclosures which he might make if alive. The end is not yet but a new and better era may result from the vigorous shaking up which many of the European

governments have received within recent months.

WHEN both Houses of Congress appointed committees to investigate the Homestead strike more than six months ago it was hoped that the inquiry would produce some results worth careful consideration. Both reports as submitted are seriously disappointing in almost every particular. The committees assert, what every intelligent American knows, that labor and capital have equal rights, that both have privileges peculiarly their own which may be exercised in the conduct of business; that arbitration is good; that intimidation is unlawful; that the law of the land should be respected by all persons and in all places. After dealing thus in common generalities they make the confession, not in the least unexpected, that legislation prohibiting the employment of Pinkerton men, cannot be forthcoming from the National Congress, it being a matter entirely for the state legislatures to regulate. The committees were appointed and the inquiry begun during the heat of the last presidential contest, when it was maintained by many partisans that the strike could not have occurred but for the protective policy of President Harrison's administration. The reports fail utterly in showing that protection was the cause of this or any other strike which has occurred within recent years. No new light is thrown on the Homestead difficulty and no new remedies are suggested for industrial crises by the distinguished agents of the government who pursued the inquiry.

ALL soiled and wornout bank notes are to be called in by the secretary of the treasury, cremated, and new ones issued by the government to take their place. This is the gist of a bill recently introduced in Congress. Biologists have demonstrated scientifically that bank notes worn and soiled by long use may carry in their fibers the germs of disease and that in many instances the soiled and repulsive appearance is due almost if not entirely to the presence of such germs in great numbers. Not long ago an old note of the Bank of Spain was found to contain nineteen thousand microbes. Especially does this matter become important when an epidemic or pestilence like cholera threatens our own country or those with whom we come in contact. The Roumanian government provides for the disinfection of all bank notes sent into the country from cholera-stricken locali-

ties, and in some cases this is a disastrous operation. While Russian, German, French, and Servian bank notes stand the test well, the Austrian and Italian lose their color and ultimately become worthless. It is a wise preventive measure which has been presented to Congress, and it deserves to become a law without delay.

"MAY God have mercy on this treason-infected state. Amen." This was the prayer uttered by the chaplain of the Kansas Senate at one time during the progress of the recent hostilities in that state. There is no doubt that the prayer itself was a pointed expression of truth, but in its application to the parties concerned in the embroglio it was ambiguous—except for the fact that the chaplain himself is a Populist. The struggle for the possession of the Lower House of the legislature began in January and continued to grow until the culmination was reached in a lawless outbreak of the lawmakers themselves aided by their political forces. Topeka, the state capital, had every appearance of being the seat of war, and if there were no lives lost and no open conflict of force it was not because the opposing partisans—Populists and Republicans—had not taken on the character of belligerents. Altogether the contest approached revolution and a small civil war was plainly avoided by a compromise dictated in a measure by fear of the results of a continuance of hostilities. The public good was forgotten in the heat of partisan strife and there followed a deplorable exhibition of legislative incapacity. Party supremacy should be subservient to the welfare of the public which is not in any way enhanced by resort to force under conditions like those which prevailed in Kansas.

ANNEXATION as an issue will not be disposed of with the settlement of the Hawaiian affair. Canada will continue to furnish a text of far greater moment than any of the islands of the Pacific. Commercialism lies at the bottom of the annexation problem. Hawaii has risen to her present greatness on the tide of commerce. The provisional government of the Hawaiian Islands represents the commercial interests of the small empire and they are the interests very largely of foreigners and a small percentage of the native population. The commissioners sent to this country by the provisional government spoke for the Hawaii of the future and advocated the protection of its national life and com-

mercial enterprise by the substantial forces of our own democratic government; the envoys of the dethroned queen plead for the perpetuation of a royal house overthrown by its own weakness; and the pathetic appeal of the school-girl princess, and her voyage from London to Washington in the interests of "her flag and her people" is a spectacular performance of royal innocence. The action of Congress on the Hawaiian affair will make a precedent for the American government on the question of annexation.

WITH the disappearance of cold weather cholera becomes imminent. Already it has been flitting about Europe from Russia to France in a way that forebodes bad results. Its deadly march may be expected when warm weather sets in. Among the most expert scientists there is the greatest uncertainty both as to the various theories relating to the disease and the probability of fresh outbreaks in particular localities. The need of the times is to put towns and cities in good sanitary condition. England was notably free from cholera last year due very largely to her admirable sanitary arrangements. Effective quarantine regulations will suffice for large ports of entry such as Hamburg or New York but as a barrier to the dreadful epidemic generally they are not of so much account. One of the most skilled physicians in Germany and one who is qualified to speak authoritatively by reason of his past experience with cholera, said recently: "When you have pulled down the cholera nests in the poor districts of towns, cholera, as other epidemics have done, will disappear. The most essential thing is to keep your towns in good sanitary condition." The passage of the National Quarantine bill by Congress will greatly increase our facilities for combating cholera in the future but unless the quarantine restrictions in vogue at our ports are supplemented by the enforcement of strict sanitary measures on the part of towns and cities farther in the interior our chances of escape will not be nearly so great.

READERS of Mr. Bellamy's delightful picture of Utopian society in the twentieth century will remember that all sorts and sizes of packages are to be delivered in an incredibly short time from one city to another and from the large government warehouses to private residences by means of pneumatic tubes. In this picture the discovery of science was used to heighten the effect of an altogether fanciful

condition. Thanks to a progressive science and Postmaster-General Wanamaker we are not to wait until the next century for a realization of the pneumatic tube scheme. The first official trial of the pneumatic tube for mail transit in America was made successfully not long since in Philadelphia where a subpost office was connected with the general office, a distance of a little more than half a mile. Postmaster-General Wanamaker sent through the initial package, made up of a Bible wrapped in the American flag, which was accompanied by the following message:

"The first use of the first pneumatic postal tube in the United States is to send through it a copy of the Holy Scriptures, the greatest message ever given to the world. Covering the Bible is the American flag, the emblem of freedom of 65,000,000 happy people."

This package reached the substation in one minute and three seconds, or at the rate of forty-five feet per second, with a pressure of six pounds to the square inch. Among the articles transmitted in addition to the regular mail were bouquets, shoes, oranges, a loaf of bread, and a laundered shirt. An official sent his gold watch in a shoe to the substation and had it returned in perfect condition. The test was practically successful in all its details and the system means nothing less than rapid communication between cities throughout the world. It was an exhibition of the wonderful possibilities of the age.

RETRIBUTIVE justice has overtaken five men who have been regarded as among the most famous in France. Ferdinand de Lesseps and his son Charles have been sentenced to five years' imprisonment and three thousand francs' fine, Gustav Eiffel to two years' imprisonment and twenty thousand francs' fine, and Henri Cottu and Marcius Fontaine to two years' imprisonment and three thousand francs' fine. Such is the punishment meted out to these Panama principals for their complicity in the most stupendous fraud of the times. The serving of these comparatively light sentences imposed by the court will be but slight mitigation for the wrong done by these men to France and their countrymen. It may be that the sentence of the elder De Lesseps, "*Le Grand Français*" was not wholly deserved. He was culpable no doubt to a large degree but that he was sinned against and made the center of a great conspiracy there can be no question. He is now in his eighty-third year and the eminence of



his position has been equaled by few men of his day. After receiving the homage of his countrymen for the best part of his mature years and after a life of brilliant achievements and continuous success he finds himself deposed as a popular idol and doomed to a prison cell. M. Eiffel is famed throughout the world by his achievement in the construction of the tower which bore his name at the Paris Exhibition in 1888. Professionally he was regarded as an engineering expert of the highest order. The public disgrace of these men which followed their conviction in court rendered their downfall complete. They face the world to-day as the criminals who have been largely instrumental in making French history of these latter days black with wickedness and corruption.

THE supreme authority of the state is to be invoked for the protection of society against the atrocities of feminine fashion. No less than three legislators have become famous within recent weeks for the advocacy of laws which shall guarantee the economy of space as it relates to woman's dress. The news has been sent broadcast over the country that bills have been introduced in the legislatures of Minnesota, Kentucky, and New York intended to prevent "the sale, loan, and wearing of hoopskirts." From England comes the announcement by cable that Her Majesty, Queen Victoria, has delivered an ultimatum in opposition to the innovation of crinoline and simultaneously American Press dispatches chronicle the similar disapproval of Mrs. Grover Cleveland. This great and momentous question seems destined to be one of lively interest and it will be strange if the world of fashion does not resent the intrusion of those ambitious legislators who design to make impossible a revival of this particular colonial custom.

At least two countries of the world have sustained injuries within recent weeks which have been nothing less than fearful calamities wrought by the hand of nature. The Greek Island, Zante, was rocked by a series of earthquakes which caused ruin to the amount of nearly two million dollars. This island is known in mythology as a part of the territory of Ulysses, king of Ithaca, and the highest mountain peak is famed as having been the seat of the temple of Diana. Of the fifty thousand inhabitants there were but few who did not suffer some loss. The second catastrophe is by no means the least and more

than equals our own Johnstown horror of two years ago. Incessant rains in Queensland for several days brought about the greatest disaster in the history of the colony. The city of Brisbane and the towns of Bundaberg, Ipswich, and Bundamba were almost completely inundated and the three latter were for a time threatened with total demolition. Hundreds of cattle were drowned, nearly five hundred houses demolished, and in the city of Brisbane where the water rushed at a depth of thirty feet, the inhabitants were compelled to take to the hills for refuge. Such is the natural phenomena of the times.

THE Louisiana Lottery is to be transplanted to Honduras upon the expiration of its present charter at the end of this year. The Central American Republic has granted the Lottery Company a charter for a consideration of a million dollars yearly and from one to three per cent of the company's net revenues. The Lottery Company propose to establish a cable line and a line of steamships between Honduras and an American port of which the Honduras government will have free use. The Louisiana Lottery has been driven from the country, and the moral victory achieved was well worth the struggle; but it will continue to plunder the American people without infringing any of our existing national laws, by reason of the support which it gets from the Honduras government, and its foreign location. It is to be hoped that some action will be taken whereby it will be impossible for such an institution to further menace American civilization.

THE circulars have been out for some time announcing the fifth annual session of the Georgia Chautauqua, to be held at Albany, Ga., from April 2 to April 10. The special schools open March 15. The management have prepared the fullest and best program that has ever been presented by any Chautauqua association in the South. All those placed in charge of the various departments are old Chautauqua workers, Dr. W. A. Duncan and Dr. A. E. Dunning being the superintendents of instruction. The president is J. S. Davis. The Hon. S. D. Bradwell and Col. Parker are directors of the educational department; Dr. H. R. Palmer conducts the music, and Dr. W. G. Anderson is at the head of the department of physical culture; Miss Anna Johnson is the principal of the Sunday-school normal department;

## C. L. S. C. OUTLINE AND PROGRAMS.

the Rev. A. S. Durston is in charge of the department of elocution; and Mr. E. P. Lyon of the commercial department. Among the platform speakers are the following: Dr. C. N. Sims, Rabbi Chas. Wessolowsky, the Rev. W. D. Powell, the Hon. G. Hartridge, the Rev. A. S. Durston, Dr. W. A. Chandler, Dr. E. Anderson, the Rev. Sam Small, the Hon. John Temple Graves. The first Recognition Day of this Assembly will be held April 8. All the usual ceremonies will be observed, and Dr. Dunning will deliver the address.

The articles by Dr. Martin L. D'Ooge of the University of Michigan on "The American School at Athens," which appeared in the January and February numbers of THE CHAUTAUQUAN, created considerable interest on that subject. Several of the engravings which accompanied the articles were reproduced from photographs taken from a collection which was made in Greece some years ago and copyrighted in this country by Miss S. A. Scull of Mount Vernon Seminary, Washington, D. C.

## C. L. S. C. OUTLINE AND PROGRAMS.

## FOR APRIL.

## OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READING.

*First week (ending April 8).*

"Greek Architecture and Sculpture." Chapter VII.

"Classic Greek Course in English." Pages 90-112.

"Manual of Christian Evidences." Chapter I.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"The Odyssey in Art."

"Eccentric Features of the World's Fair."

Sunday Reading for April 2.

*Second week (ending April 15).*

"Greek Architecture and Sculpture." Chapter VIII.

"Classic Greek Course in English." Pages 112-124.

"Manual of Christian Evidences." Chapter II.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"The Organization of Labor."

"Greek in the English of Modern Science."

Sunday Reading for April 9.

*Third week (ending April 22).*

"Classic Greek Course in English." Pages 124-139.

"Manual of Christian Evidences."—Chapter III.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"Scientific Phases of Mining."

"American and Grecian Jurisprudence Compared."

Sunday Reading for April 16.

*Fourth week (ending April 29).*

"Classic Greek Course in English." Pages 139-151.

"Manual of Christian Evidences." Chapter IV.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"The Cotton Manufacture of New England."

Sunday Reading for April 23 and 30.

## SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLE WORK.

## FIRST WEEK.

1. Roll-Call—Observations on the approach of spring—the coming of the birds, the budding of plants, etc.
2. Table-Talk—Current News.
3. Reading—"A Spring Prelude."\*
4. Paper—A full *résumé* of the wanderings of Ulysses.
5. Debate—Resolved: That the sentence of the French tribunal against Ferdinand de Lesseps is unjust in its severity.

## SECOND WEEK.

1. Roll-Call—Quotations on labor.
2. Table-Talk—The Home Rule bill for Ireland.
3. Reading—"Amphion."\*
4. Character Sketch—William E. Gladstone.
5. Debate—Resolved: That the organization of labor is a necessity.

## THIRD WEEK.

1. Roll-Call—Questions from *The Question Table*.
2. Table-Talk—Hawaii and the present relations of the United States to it.
3. Reading—"Words that are not Words."\*
4. Papers—A comparison of the works of Homer and Herodotus as to their practical value to mankind. There should be two writers, one advocating the superior claim of the poet, the other of the historian.
5. *Questions and Answers* on "Classic Greek Course in English" and "Manual of Christian Evidences."

\*See *The Library Table*, page 120.

## PHIDIAS DAY—April 24.

Let statue, picture, park, and hall,  
Ballad, flag, and festival,  
The past restore, the day adorn,  
And make each morrow a new morn.  
'Tis the privilege of art  
Thus to play the cheerful part.

1. Roll-Call—Quotations on art.
2. Paper—A summary of the works of Phidias.

3. Discussion—Was the fortune of Phidias made or marred by having as his personal friend so powerful a man as Pericles?
4. Reading—"In a Sculptor's Studio."\*
5. *Questions and Answers* on "Greek Architecture and Sculpture" in the current number of THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

\* See *The Library Table*, page 120.

## C. L. S. C. NOTES AND WORD STUDIES.

## ON REQUIRED READINGS FOR APRIL.

## "GREEK ARCHITECTURE AND SCULPTURE."

P. 99. "Cēn-o-ma'us." "An oracle having declared to Cēnomaus, king of Pisa in Elis, that he should be killed by his son-in-law, he declared that he would bestow the hand of his daughter Hippodamia upon the man who should conquer him in the chariot race, but that whoever was conquered should suffer death. This he did because his horses were swifter than those of any other mortal. He had overtaken and slain many a suitor when Pelops came to Pisa. Pelops bribed Myrtilus, the charioteer of Cēnomaus, by the promise of half the kingdom, if he would assist him in conquering his master. Myrtilus agreed and took out the linchpins of the chariot of Cēnomaus. In the race the chariot of Cēnomaus broke down and he was thrown out and killed. Thus Hippodamia became the wife of Pelops. But as Pelops had now gained his object, he was unwilling to keep faith with Myrtilus, and accordingly as they were driving along a cliff, he threw Myrtilus into the sea. As Myrtilus sank, he cursed Pelops and his whole race. Pelops returned with Hippodamia to Pisa in Elis and soon made himself master of Olympia, where he restored the Olympian games with greater splendor than ever."—*Smith's "Classical Dictionary."*

"Ep-i-cu'ri-us." A surname of Apollo, meaning the helper. Under the name of Apollo Epicurius this god was worshiped at Bassae in Arcadia. "Every year a wild boar was sacrificed to him in his temple, on Mt. Lyceus. He had received this surname because he had at one time delivered the country from a pestilence."

P. 102. Leochares [le-ok'a-rēs].—Bry-ax'is.

P. 104. "Apollo So-si-a'nus." An image of Apollo brought from Seleucia to Rome by the quaestor C. Sosius.

"Gan-y-me'de." A young Trojan who "was the most beautiful of all mortals, and was carried off by the gods that he might fill the cup of Zeus and live among the immortal gods." This is

one account of the rape; but another tradition says that Zeus himself in the disguise of an eagle, carried him off. Zeus compensated the father, Tros, for his loss by the gift of a pair of divine horses.

P. 109. "Mae'nads." In mythology the name was applied to the women attendants in the train of Bacchus; those who celebrated the festivals of this god with songs and dancing. They were a favorite subject in classic art. Lowell in "The Cathedral" alludes to them as follows:

"Such illusions as of old  
Through Athens glided menad-like."

P. 110. "A-pox-y-om'e-nos." The word itself means to scrape off, and was used as the name of one using the strigil, the instrument used for scraping the skin at the bath and in the gymnasium, which instrument was made of metal, ivory, or horn.

"Colossus of Rhodes." This gigantic statue was erected to commemorate the victory of this city, assisted by Ptolemy Soter, king of Egypt, over the besieging Macedonians. The statue was one hundred and five feet high and hollow with a winding staircase reaching into the head. It was overthrown in 224 B. C. by an earthquake, after it had stood for only fifty-six years. It was left lying on the ground for nine centuries and then sold by the Saracens who had captured Rhodes in the seventh century, to a Jew, as old metal. It is said that it took nine hundred camels to remove it, whence it is estimated to have weighed 720,000 pounds.

P. 111. "Castor and Pollux." The sons of Jupiter and Leda, and the brothers of Helen of Troy. "They accompanied the Argonautic expedition. During the voyage a storm arose, and Orpheus prayed to the Samothracian gods and played upon his harp, whereupon the storm ceased, and stars appeared on the heads of the two brothers. From this incident Castor and Pollux came afterward to be considered the pa-

tron deities of seamen and voyagers, and the lambent flames which in certain states of the atmosphere play round the sails and masts of vessels, were called by their name."—One of the ships in which St. Paul sailed was named the *Castor and Pollux*. See Acts XXVIII, 11.—After their return from this expedition Castor was slain in war, and "Pollux besought Jupiter to be permitted to give his own life as a ransom for him. Jupiter so far consented as to allow the two brothers to enjoy the boon of life alternately, passing one day under the earth and the next in the heavenly abodes. According to another form of the story, Jupiter rewarded the attachment of the brothers by placing them among the stars as Gemini, the Twins."—When Helen of Troy sat on the wall with Priam and named over the famous Greeks (see *Classic Greek in English*, page 63 *seq.*) she missed her brothers.

"Dionysus transforming the Tyrrhenian pirates into dolphins." Dionysus, or Bacchus, at one time wished to make a journey from Icaria to Naxos and hired for the purpose a ship which belonged to the pirates. These men "instead of landing at Naxos steered toward Asia, intending to sell him there as a slave. Thereupon the god changed the mast and oars into serpents and himself into a lion; ivy grew around the vessel, and the sound of flutes was heard on every side; the sailors were seized with madness, leaped into the sea and were metamorphosed into dolphins."

P. 113. "The Toro Farnese." "Am-phí'on was the son of Jupiter and Anti'o-pe, queen of Thebes. With his twin brother Zethus he was exposed at birth on Mount Cithæron where they grew up among the shepherds, not knowing their parentage. Mercury gave Amphion a lyre, and taught him to play upon it, and his brother occupied himself in hunting and tending the flocks. Meanwhile Antiope, their mother, who had been treated with great cruelty by Lycus, the usurping king of Thebes and by Dirke [also written, more commonly, Dirce] his wife found means to inform her children of their rights and to summon them to her assistance. With a band of their fellow-herdsmen they attacked and slew Lycus, and, tying Dirke by the hair of her head to a bull, let him drag her till she was dead. Amphion, having become king of Thebes, fortified the city with a wall. It is said that when he played on his lyre the stones moved of their own accord and took their places in the wall."—*Bulfinch's Mythology*.

The name Farnese belonged to an illustrious family of Italy. The Farnese Palace at Rome was one of the most magnificent in that city. It was built by Cardinal Alessandro Farnese, af-

terward Pope Paul III. (1534-49.) "The antique sculptures for which it was renowned are now in the museum of Naples and two at least still bear their original names, the Farnese Bull and the Farnese Hercules. . . . The Toro Farnese was discovered among the ruins of the Baths of Caracalla at Rome in 1546. It was restored by Bianchi, who worked under the direction of Michael Angelo."

"La-oc'o-ön." "In Greek mythology Laocöön was a Trojan priest of Apollo, who when the famous wooden horse was received within the walls of Troy, warned his countrymen not to accept the gift of the Greeks. It being the will of the gods that Troy should be taken, serpents were sent to devour Laocöön and his two sons while they were sacrificing."

Eutychides [eu-tik'i-des].—Ceph-i-sod'o-tus.—Py-rom'a-chus.—I-sig'o-nus.—Strat-o-ní'cus.

P. 116. "The Python." "The slime with which the earth was covered by the waters of the Deucalion flood produced an excessive fertility which called forth every variety of production, both bad and good. Among the rest Python, an enormous serpent, crept forth, the terror of the people, and lurked in the caves of Mount Parnassus. Apollo slew him with his arrows. In commemoration of this illustrious conquest he instituted the Pythian games." Apollo, the god of healing, was the father of Æsculapius, the god of medicine. Serpents were a symbol of renovation and were believed to have the power of discovering healing herbs. Hence they figure in representations of Apollo and especially of Æsculapius.

Mon-tor'so-li.

P. 118. "*Diadumenum fecit*," etc. He fashioned a young man gracefully winding a diadem round his head.—"*Idem et Doryphorum*" etc. And likewise a youth manfully bearing a lance.

P. 119. "Dis-cob'o-los." The quoit-player or thrower of the discus.

P. 124. Giustiani [joos-tin-e-ä'nee.]

P. 125. "The Ni'o-be Group." "Niobe was the wife of Amphion, and as a punishment for her boast that she might rival Leto [the mother of Apollo and Diana] as the mother of beautiful children, her children were all slain by the arrows of Apollo and Artemis (Diana).

"CLASSIC GREEK COURSE IN ENGLISH."

P. 90. "Mil-len'ni-um." A period of one thousand years. From Latin, *mille*, and *annus*, year.

"Homer." On the word Homeric, the *Century Dictionary* says: "According to the life of Homer, falsely attributed to Herodotus, *homeros*



in the Cumæan dialect meant 'blind,' whence some explain the tradition of Homer's blindness. The name has been otherwise explained, e. g., as an eponym of the *Homeridæ*, a guild of poets in Chios, or, generally, the rhapsodists who recited the poems ascribed to Homer; but the meaning of the name and the very existence of the poet as a distinct person remain doubtful." There existed in the island of Chios "a fraternity or guild called the *Homeridæ*," or Sons of Homer, who preserved among themselves the poems attributed at that time to the unknown Homer; the members of this guild being themselves, like Homer, minstrels by profession.

P. 91. "Dac-tyl'ic hex-am'e-ter." For the definition of dactylic see foot-note on page 643 of *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* for March, 1893. Dactylic hexameter is the name applied to poetry consisting of dactylic measures of six feet. The following is an example, the last foot being incomplete:

"This' is the | for'est pri | me'val; but | where' are the |  
hearts' that be- | neath' it."

The poetry on page 96 *seq.* is in i-am'bic pentam'e-ters; that is each verse, or line, contains five feet, or measures, and each foot is an iambus, that is a measure consisting of a short (unaccented) syllable, followed by a long (accented) one. The first line on that page may be represented thus:

"Couched' on | each side' | the gleam' | -ing doors'. |  
Thence swept'.

The first foot of this verse, as often happens, is varied by a trochee—that is a measure made up of a long syllable followed by a short one. The syllables were long or short in Greek regardless of accent, but there is nothing in English to correspond to those old divisions, and in it the feet depend upon the accent.

Ogygia [o-jij'i-a].—Te-lem'a-chus.

P. 92. "Mo'ly." "Wild garlic, called sorcerer's garlic. There are many sorts, all of which flower in May, except 'the sweet moly of Montpellier,' which blossoms in September. The most noted are the great moly of Homer, the Indian moly, the moly of Hungary, serpent's moly. . . . Pope describes it and its effects in one of his odes, and Milton refers to it in his 'Comus' as follows:

"And yet more med'cinal is it than that moly  
That Hermes once to wise Ulysses gave."

P. 96. "Dymas." A Phæacian whose daughter was one of the attendants and the dearest friend of Nausicaä.

"Wain." Wagon, vehicle.

"Rede." Also written read. Counsel, advice, speech.

"Volant." Flying, light, nimble.

P. 97. "Skins of yarn sea-purple." "The ancients esteemed purple more highly than any other color, sometimes making it a distinctive badge of royalty. The purple of the Greeks and Romans was obtained from the murex, a genus of molluscs found in the Mediterranean Sea." It is said that heaps of the broken shells may still be seen on the Phœnician shore. The smaller shells were crushed in mortars but the animal was taken out from the larger ones. The coloring fluid is secreted by a special gland situated on the mantle.

"Trouled." Rambled, strolled. Troul is an obsolete form of the verb troll.

P. 102. "Per-i-boi'a.—Nau-sith'o-us—Rhex-e'nor.

P. 105. Echeneüs [ek-e-ne'us]. — La-od'a-mas.

P. 106. "Hec'a-tomb." A sacrifice of one hundred oxen, or of other beasts of one kind; any great sacrificial offering.

Pon-ton'o-us.

P. 108. "Teen." Grief, ill-fortune, trouble. The word is now obsolete or archaic.

P. 110. "Rhad-a-man'thus." Son of Zeus and Europa. From fear of his brother, Minos, king of Crete, he fled to Ocalea in Bœotia, and there married Alcmena. "In consequence of his justice throughout life, he became after death one of the judges in the lower world."

"Tit'y-us." A giant of Eubœa (Euboia's isle).

P. 131. In-ter'ca-la-ry. From Latin *inter*, between, and *calare*, to call. Inserted in the calendar out of regular order, as the extra day in leap year, or an extra month. "The Greek year consisted of 12 lunar months of 30 and 29 days alternately. This made the length of the year 354 days, or  $11\frac{1}{4}$  days too small. To compensate for the deficiency, an intercalary month of 30 or 29 days was introduced every alternate year, which made the average length 7 days too great; for which reason the intercalary month was omitted once in about 8 years." Herodotus has made his calculations in round numbers, counting 30 days to every month.

P. 133. "Pyth'o-ness." "The Pythia or especial priestess of Apollo at his temple at Delphi who was supposed to be inspired to give his oracular answers." Delphi was originally called Pytho, whence the name Pythoness for the priestess.

P. 138. "Lydia." Herodotus tells the following story of the Greek colonists: "When Cyrus by the defeat of Croesus had made himself the master of Lydia, the Greek colonists on the

Asiatic seaboard sent to him in alarm, and begged to be allowed to become his vassals on the same terms as they had been to Croesus. He answered them by a scornful parable: There was a certain piper who piped on the seashore for the fish to come out, but they came not. Then he took a net and hauled out a great draught of them. The fish, in their agonies, began to caper. But he said, 'Cease to dance now, since ye would not dance when I piped to you.'

P. 139. Tom'y-ris.

"MANUAL OF CHRISTIAN EVIDENCES."

P. 5. "Probable." Originally the word had a stronger meaning than that now commonly attributed to it. It comes from a Latin word meaning, that may be proved or that may be approved; hence provable, approved, which meaning although still retained is seldom understood, that of likely being taken for granted. Jeremy Taylor with signal effect compels this word with many others to return to its original source in his use of it in the expression "a probable doctor," that is, a doctor who had proved himself worthy, who was worthy of approval.

"Cumulative." From *cumulus*, the Latin word for heap, hence the meaning, composed of parts, brought together by degrees. Cumulative evidence is "evidence in which the parts reinforce one another, producing an effect stronger than any part taken by itself."

P. 11. "Axiom." From a Greek word meaning, that which is thought fit, that which a pupil is required to know beforehand; hence, a self-evident truth. "The Greek word was probably applied by Plato to certain first premises of mathematics, and this continues to be the ordinary use of the term."

P. 15. "Fallacies." Deceptions, things which are erroneous or false. From the Latin verb *fallere*, to deceive. In a specific sense fallacy means, a false syllogism, "a proposed reasoning which, professing to deduce a necessary

conclusion, reaches one which may be false though the premises are true, or which, professing to be probable, infers something that is really not probable. . . . It is used to mean a piece of false reasoning, a false belief, or any mental confusion."

P. 16. "Natural theology." That division of theology, or the science of religion, which "treats of God and divine things in so far as their nature is disclosed through human consciousness, through the material creation, and through the moral order discernible in the course of history apart from revelation, or revealed theology, which treats of the same subject matter as made known in the Scriptures."

P. 24. "Upas." A Javan tree of the bread-fruit family, which grows to the height of one hundred feet or more, with a straight trunk and a handsome rounded head. Wonderful stories were told about it when it was first made known. A surgeon in the Dutch East Indian service in the eighteenth century represented that "the emanations of the upas tree killed all animals that approached it, even birds that flew too near it falling dead, that criminals condemned to death were allowed the alternative to go to that tree and collect some of the poison, only two out of twenty ever returning; and that he had learned from those fortunate enough to return that the tree was in a valley, with no other tree or plant within ten or twelve miles of it, all being barren waste, strewn with human and other bones." These stories were disproved by a traveler in 1810. The tree is found in forests with other trees and lizards and other animals do not avoid it. Its poisonous emanations seem in their effect similar to those of the poison ivy and sumach, to affect some persons and not others. The natives have long used its poison upon their arrows and other instruments of war.

P. 28. "Mon'o-the-ism." A Greek derivative from *monos*, one, and *Theos*, God. The doctrine or belief that there is but one God.

QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS.

ON THE C. L. S. C. TEXT-BOOKS.

"GREEK ARCHITECTURE AND SCULPTURE."

1. Q. Why did the archaeologists settle upon Olympia as a place promising to reward their researches? A. They knew from the history of Pausanias, that the Temple of Zeus, with its pediments filled with statues, had been built there.

2. Q. What ruins were discovered in 1812? A. Those of the Temple of Apollo at Phigalia.

3. Q. In what particular are the figures in the frieze of this temple too artificial? A. In trying to imitate the Parthenon figures, the artists undertook to show too strong action and draperies much contorted and exaggerated.

4. Q. The ruins of what temple show a grand treatment of draperies? A. The Temple of Wingless Victory at Athens.

5. Q. When were the ruins of the famous tomb of Mausolus discovered? A. In 1857.

6. Q. In what honor had this tomb been held by the Greeks? A. They had named it as one of the seven wonders of the world.

7. Q. How do these works of the contemporaries of Phidias compare with the great examples in the Parthenon? A. They suffer greatly in the comparison.

8. Q. Who were at the head of the later Athenian school? A. Praxiteles and Scopas.

9. Q. Toward what style of sculpture did this later school tend? A. Toward the poetic, graceful, sentimental, and romantic, rather than the severe and grand.

10. Q. Where did the sculptors of this school find their subjects? A. In the whole range of the beautiful myths of Nymphs, Nereids, Mænads, and Bacchantes.

11. Q. What school followed the later Athenian? A. The Macedonian.

12. Q. Who was the leading artist of this school? A. Lysippus.

13. Q. How is Lysippus described? A. As the first great naturalistic sculptor.

14. Q. What peculiar treatment of the hair is characteristic of this period? A. That of representing it as rising in two strong curls above the forehead.

15. Q. Why did Lysippus give this peculiarity to his figures? A. To flatter Alexander who wore his hair in this manner.

16. Q. For what is the Rhodian school distinguished? A. Remarkable sculptures in marble of large groups of figures, such as the Toro Farnese and the Laocoön.

17. Q. Of what school was Pyromachus the chief sculptor? A. The Pergamus school.

18. Q. After what piece of statuary did Hawthorne name his romance "The Marble Faun"? A. The Faun of Praxiteles.

19. Q. Where was the famous statue of the Venus de Medici found? A. In the Forum of Hadrian's villa, in 1680.

20. Q. At what time is the beautiful statue of the Venus of Milo supposed to have been sculptured? A. 250 B. C.

in the one book everything is dared, in the other everything is endured.

3. Q. From whose translation of Homer are most of the selections presented, taken? A. Worsley's.

4. Q. What is the first incident given? A. The visit of Odysseus to the country of the Phæacians.

5. Q. Who among English poets have made their readers familiar with the name of the Phæacian king, Alcinous? A. Milton and Tennyson.

6. Q. On what delicious bit of invention and description in the Odyssey did Tennyson found one of his finest poems? A. That of the "Lotus-eaters."

7. Q. In what character did Homer make a present to the world of fancy? A. Circe.

8. Q. In what two renowned books are to be found versions of the legend of Circe? A. In Milton's "Comus" and Hawthorne's "Tanglewood Tales."

9. Q. How did Odysseus convince his aged father of his identity? A. By naming over the trees in the garden.

10. Q. Who intervenes and settles the last threatening difficulty in the Odyssey? A. Athene in the form of Mentor.

11. Q. By what title is Herodotus known? A. The "father of history."

12. Q. When did Herodotus live? A. About 484 B. C.

13. Q. How has the tendency of recent historical criticism affected the fame of Herodotus? A. It has raised his credit as a trustworthy historian.

14. Q. Why were the ancients led to give the names of the nine Muses to the divisions of Herodotus' book? A. Perhaps in recognition of its poetic qualities.

15. Q. What other Greek did the works of Herodotus inspire to become a historian? A. Thucydides.

16. Q. Of what does the narrative of Herodotus chiefly treat? A. The hostile contact between the Greeks and the Persians.

17. Q. With what does his history open and what are its ultimate objective points? A. With the origin of empires older than the Persian; with the decisive battles of the Persian War.

18. Q. Why does a peculiar interest attach to his book on Egypt? A. It is the only literature to furnish information concerning that country parallel with the information in the Bible.

19. Q. What peculiar theory of human life did Herodotus set forth? A. That it constantly

"CLASSIC GREEK COURSE IN ENGLISH."

1. Q. What is the meaning of the word Odyssey? A. The poem of Odysseus or Ulysses.

2. Q. What two contrasted words best represent the difference in spirit manifested in the Iliad and the Odyssey? A. Valor and fortitude;

furnished proof that the gods envied and revenged excessive prosperity.

20. Q. Of whose fortunes did Herodotus weave a delightful romance? A. Those of Croesus.

21. Q. What is said to have formed the source of the reported wealth of Croesus? A. The sands of gold brought down by the river Pactolus.

22. Q. After the overthrow of Croesus, what position did he hold in the Persian court? A. He was made guide, philosopher, and friend to the king.

23. Q. Who furnishes the second illustrious historic example for Herodotus? Xerxes.

24. Q. Against what great representative Greek did Herodotus bring a heavy indictment? A. Themistocles.

25. Q. For what are the writings of Herodotus highly prized? A. For the literary image immortally preserved in them of the age and race to which their author belonged.

#### "MANUAL OF CHRISTIAN EVIDENCES."

1. Q. What is the only point which it is attempted to establish in this text-book? A. The substantial verity of the New Testament history.

2. Q. What facts are taken for granted in this inquiry? A. The existence of God and His government of the world.

3. Q. What two points are included in the evidences of Christianity? A. The proofs of the genuineness and of the credibility of the New Testament writings.

4. Q. When is a writing genuine? A. When it is written by the author to whom it is ascribed.

5. Q. What is historical evidence? A. That which rests upon the credible testimony of witnesses or contemporaries.

6. Q. Into what two classes may historical evidence be divided? A. Into probable and demonstrative evidence.

7. Q. How many kinds of proof are brought forward to establish Christianity? A. Cumulative, internal, external, and affectional proofs.

8. Q. What is the most common objection made to the credibility and the genuineness of the New Testament? A. The accounts of miracles which it contains.

9. Q. Define a miracle. A. It is an event which the forces of nature cannot of themselves produce.

10. Q. What is natural law? A. The method of the action of established forces.

11. Q. What affords the most striking illustration of the possibility of a miracle? A. The human will.

12. Q. What was Hume's argument? A. That no amount of testimony could prove a miracle.

13. Q. What is the distinctive office and place of miracles among the evidences of Revelation? A. They are aids to faith in the religious doctrine of Christ.

14. Q. What gives rise to the presumption against the truth of miracles? A. The fact of the uniformity of nature and the obvious benefit of such an arrangement.

15. Q. What only is requisite in order to set aside this presumption against the miraculous? A. A discernment of the need of a Revelation.

16. Q. What four points are specified in this need? A. The need of knowledge, the guilt of sin, the bondage of sin, the burden of pain and sorrow.

17. Q. Where are there to be found indications of the benevolence of God to supply this need? A. In nature.

18. Q. How does Christianity meet the needs of man? A. It sets forth the truths of natural religion; it recognizes the malady; it provides remedies.

19. Q. What does the history of Christianity prove? A. That the practice of virtue and the conquest over vice are achieved by means of the faith and hope of the Gospel.

20. Q. For what are these considerations sufficient? A. To neutralize the presumptions against miracles in connection with Christianity.

21. Q. What essential side of the evidence of the truth of Christianity would be lost if the miracles were subtracted? A. Its distinctive character as a direct approach of God to man.

22. Q. What is the first of the admitted facts respecting Christianity? A. Its origin in the life of Jesus.

23. Q. What expectation of the Jewish religion was met in Christianity? A. That of a universal divine kingdom of which the Messiah was to be the head.

24. Q. How widespread is the Christian religion at the present time? A. It is professed by nearly one third of the people of the world.

25. Q. What influence has Christianity exerted upon the individual and upon society? A. That of a profound, transforming character altogether elevating and wholesome.



## THE QUESTION TABLE.

ANSWERS IN NEXT NUMBER.

### AFFAIRS GRECIAN AND AMERICAN.

1. Who was the rival of Demosthenes in Greek oratory?
2. What was the chief point of contrast between them?
3. What two American orators are compared to Demosthenes and Æschines?
4. Why are they thus compared?
5. What reasons are given for the moral superiority of the orations of Webster and Hayne over those of Demosthenes and Æschines?
6. What reasons are given for the superior eloquence of Demosthenes over that of Webster and other orators of later times?
7. After comparing Greek orators with each other and with American orators and orators of other nations what is the final decision?
8. What was the masterpiece of Demosthenes?
9. Why so called?
10. Whom did Æschines attack in his oration, and why?

### PRACTICAL SCIENCE.—VII.

1. What probably was the earliest bridge?
2. To what did this suggestion probably lead?
3. What and where was the oldest wooden bridge of which we have any account?
4. What religious title stands as a monument to this bridge? Name another historical event which makes the bridge famous.
5. What is meant by the expression, "pons asinorum"?
6. Bridges are considered in respect to their substructure and superstructure; what constitutes each?
7. According to their superstructure into what three classes may bridges be classed?
8. What is the largest stone arch known?
9. What is the most noted suspension bridge?
10. What is the United States law in regard to bridges over navigable streams?

### MATTERS EDUCATIONAL.—VII.

1. What great Swiss educational reformer on account of his awkwardness was in his boyhood nicknamed by his schoolfellows Harry Oddity von Foolville?
2. What educational book written by this reformer became so popular as to make his friends

- hope that he might be a successful novelist?
3. Who composed the first school of this reformer, which was established at Neuhoof?
4. What subsequent school established by him became so popular as to gain a European reputation?
5. Who was the most famous disciple of this great reformer?
6. From seeing a child playing ball, what educational system did Froebel conceive?
7. Under what graceful name did Froebel present his young scholars with objects which were to serve as material for their exercises?
8. In the system of Froebel what is an essential element of education?
9. What distinguished American educational reformer was elected to Congress to fill the vacancy caused by the death of John Adams?
10. Name some of the reforms put into execution by this educationist.

### THE WORLD OF TO-DAY.—CURRENT EVENTS.

1. What is the Uganda trouble?
2. How many immigrants has it been estimated that the quarantine laws of last summer kept out of the United States?
3. What is claimed to be the most vital point in the new Home Rule bill of Ireland?
4. From what recent exhaustive examination has the Salvation Army social scheme emerged triumphantly?
5. What two men, to whom the commerce of the world owes a heavy debt, has the Panama Canal scheme placed before the world as felons?
6. Who is chiefly implicated in the Berlin scandals regarding the misappropriation of the Guelph fund?
7. Upon what ambitious project is the little kingdom of Holland at work in order to increase her territory?
8. What is the cause of the recent Scandinavian dispute?
9. What measure did the Chilean Congress recently pass regarding the followers of Balmaceda?
10. What is the occasion of the present jubilee in Rome, and how long is it to continue?

### ANSWERS TO QUESTIONS IN THE CHAUTAUQUAN FOR MARCH.

#### THE GREEK DRAMA.

1. The festivals of Dionysus, the god of wine,

which were held three times each year during the winter season. 2. Hymns or chants by a chorus, in honor of Dionysus, or recitations by the leader, with responses by the chorus or by a chosen member of the chorus. 3. Goat song, a goat being offered before the singing of the song. 4. Æschylus, born 525 B. C., who by introducing a second actor changed what was before essentially lyrical to dramatic. 5. Sophocles, who also added a third and fourth actor to his plays. 6. Euripides, sometimes called the "human," marks a period of transition in the tragic art, and is the mediator between the classic and romantic drama. 7. Seven of the seventy written by Æschylus are still extant, seven of the one hundred and thirteen by Sophocles, and seventeen of the ninety-two by Euripides. 8. Comedy, "the village-song," represented the lighter, as tragedy the graver side of the Dionysiac worship. 9. Aristophanes, who is said to be the only one of the writers of Greek Comedy who still lives in his writings. 10. Of his eleven extant comedies, the earlier ones were examples of the most extreme political criticism and personal satire, then a change from political to literary and social satire, and the latest resembled the more modern comedy of manners, almost wholly avoiding personal satire and criticism.

## PRACTICAL SCIENCE.—VI.

1. An artificial underground passage, usually for conducting a canal or railroad through a hill or mountain, or under the bed of a stream; also for the construction of sewers, drains, etc. 2. From 50 to 60 feet. 3. Nitroglycerine, a much more powerful explosive. 4. The two-fold use of compressed air,—to propel the machinery which drives the tools, and in its escape after doing this work, to help ventilate the tunnel. 5. Temporary props of timber are put up as the work progresses, and afterwards replaced by walls and arches of masonry. 6. They are very few in America, many in Europe. 7. Those under the beds of rivers and lakes. 8. A subaqueous tunnel joining the banks of the Euphrates, said to have been constructed in the reign of Queen Semiramis (about 1250 B. C.). 9. That upon the canal of "Languedoc, constructed in 1666, through the hill of Malpas, and, although but 767 feet long, was considered 'something prodigious and worthy of the ancient Romans.'" 10. (a) Owing to the slope which is usual in the course of tunnels, a natural ventila-

tion is kept up by the hot air rising to and passing out of the higher end of the tunnel. (b) Because owing to the small slope, the ventilation is too gradual, and therefore liable to be neutralized by the outside elements; and if the slope is crossed, more smoke and heat are generated by the engine in ascending through the tunnel. (c) The tunnel is divided into an upper and lower chamber, communicating by valves through which the hot air and smoke may pass into the upper chamber but may not return to the lower. There are various devices for purifying the upper apartment.

## MATTERS EDUCATIONAL.—VI.

1. As a permanent school fund. 2. "For gospel and school purposes." 3. They contributed to increase the common school fund, the endowment of colleges, the erection of buildings, and the payment of teachers. 4. That of "boarding round," the people of the district furnishing in turn a free home to the teacher. 5. Nearly 80,000,000 acres. 6. Reading, reckoning, and writing. 7. The first American book on the subject of grammar, written by Bingham. 8. Friedrich Froebel. 9. The Rev. James G. Carter, of Massachusetts. 10. In Tompkins County, New York, by Supt. J. S. Denman in 1843.

## WORLD OF TO-DAY.—EGYPT.

1. That of absolute hereditary monarchy. 2. A principality. 3. The privileges granted by a firman, issued in 1873 by the sultan to the khedive, nominally changed the position of Egypt from a province into an almost sovereign kingdom; though in fact it remains a principality. 4. It is a Persian word and means an order; it is employed especially in Turkey to designate a decree issued by the Porte and signed by the sultan. 5. Ismail Pasha received it from the Turkish government in 1867; it means substitute or viceroy. 6. In the invasion made by Napoleon Bonaparte in 1798. 7. From 1869, when they interfered in behalf of the European bond-holders, to 1882. 8. The French declined to take part in suppressing a revolt headed by Arabi Pasha for the purpose of abolishing all foreign officials. 9. Abbas II., who succeeded to power in January, 1892, and who is only nineteen years of age. 10. His appointment to the post of prime minister of Fakhri Pasha, a man notorious for his enmity to the English.

## THE C. L. S. C. CLASSES.

1882-1896.

### CLASS OF 1893.—"THE ATHENIANS."

*"Study to be what you wish to seem."*

#### OFFICERS.

*President*—The Rev. R. C. Dodds, Buffalo, N. Y.

*Vice Presidents*—George W. Driscoll, Syracuse, N. Y.; Miss Kate McGillioray, Port Calborne, Province Ontario, Canada; the Rev. M. D. Lichter, McKeesport, Pa.; the Rev. A. F. Ashton, Ohio; Mrs. Helen M. Anthony, Ottawa, Ill.; W. P. Hulse, Brooklyn, N. Y.; Mrs. H. C. Pharr, Louisiana; Rev. D. F. C. Timmons Tyler, Texas; John C. Burke, Waterville, Kans.; Prof. E. C. Wright, Cambridge, Mass.

*General Secretary*—Mrs. A. J. L'Hommedieu, 18½ Central Ave., Jersey City, N. J.

*Treasurer*—Prof. W. H. Scott, Syracuse, N. Y.

*Class Trustee*—George E. Vincent.

*District Secretaries*—The Rev. T. H. Paden, New Concord, Ohio; the Rev. Charles Thayer, Ph. D.; L. E. Welch, Albany, Ga.; Mrs. Robert Gentry, Chicago, Ill.

*Executive Committee*—Miss Kate Little, Preston, Minn.; Prof. W. H. Scott; Mrs. Helen M. Anthony.

CLASS EMBLEM—ACORN.

A MEMBER of '93 from New Zealand, who has, in spite of great distance from the home office, continued his work with commendable perseverance, writes in response to a circular sent him in the fall, that he has done everything in his power to extend the influence of the C. L. S. C., but with little result. He finds that the young men whom he can reach seem to be wholly given to athletic sports, but he adds: "My want of success with others does not damp my own personal interest, because the more I know the C. L. S. C. the more I value it. I only regret that I did not take it up years ago."

THE spirit of '93 is very strong even in so remote a spot as India. A member at one of the mission fields where she has been laboring for many months and where cholera is abroad in the land, writes: "Success to '93. It will take a long pull and a hard pull for us to come out even in the race but we are willing to try and if health and circumstances permit, we shall triumph."

A RECENT graduate sums up his experience with the C. L. S. C. as follows: "I have gained much from the reading and study. I have found that when we want to do a thing we do get time. I have brought myself into excellent training for future study and shall take up additional courses." We hope that this expresses the experience of many a '93 and that the number of working graduates next year may include a large proportion of '93's.

A FERVENT '93 who took up a systematic course of reading to keep in touch with her oldest son writes, "It has happened that we have often been at work on the same line of study and so could help each other. I never read a newspaper or periodical or hear a lecture but I realize the benefit I am receiving from this plan of study."

### CLASS OF 1894.—"THE PHILOMATHEANS."

*"Ubi mel, ibi apes."*

#### OFFICERS.

*President*—John Habberton, New York City.

*Vice Presidents*—The Rev. A. C. Ellis, Jamestown, N. Y.; the Rev. E. D. Ledyard, Steubenville, Ohio; the Rev. L. A. Banks, Boston, Mass.; the Rev. J. A. Cosby, Benkleman, Neb.; the Rev. Dr. Livingston, Toronto, Canada; Mrs. Helen Campbell, New York City; the Rev. J. W. Lee, D. D., Atlanta, Ga.; Rev. Dr. D. A. Cunningham, Wheeling, W. Va.; Rev. Mr. Gibson, Michigan.

*Secretary*—Miss Grace B. Fowler, Buffalo, N. Y.

*Treasurer*—Mr. Henry M. Hall, Titusville, Pa.

*Class Trustee*—W. T. Everson, Union City, Pa.

CLASS FLOWER—CLOVER.

A WORD from a member of '94 evidently voices her convictions: "No words can tell how much this course is to me; besides supplementing a neglected education, it is rest, recreation, a friend and companion. I daily bless the Chautauqua plan and the wisdom which pushed it to such wonderful success."

### CLASS OF 1895.—"THE PATHFINDERS."

*"The truth shall make you free."*

#### OFFICERS.

*President*—Rev. Wilbur F. Crafts, Pittsburg, Pa.

*Vice Presidents*—Dr. H. B. Adams, Baltimore, Md.; Rev. Chauncey M. Pond, Oberlin, O.; Mr. J. B. Morton, Winter Park, Fla.; Mr. G. P. Hukill, Oil City, Pa.; Mrs. F. D. Gardener, Manlius, N. Y.; Miss Mary Davenport, Brooklyn, N. Y.

*Cor. Secretary*—Miss Jane Mead Welch, Buffalo, N. Y.

*Recording Secretary*—Miss Mary E. Miller, Akron, O.

*Treasurer*—Mr. R. M. Alden, 625 Maryland Avenue N.E., Washington, D. C.

*Trustee of the Building Fund*—Mr. G. P. Hukill, Oil City, Pa.

*Class Historian*—Miss Trowbridge, New Haven, Conn.

CLASS FLOWER—NASTURTIUM.

CLASS EMBLEM—A BLUE RIBBON.

A LEAF from the letter of a busy doctor gives an interesting glimpse of the life of this member of the Class of '95. She writes: "When I joined the C. L. S. C. I was resident physician in a hospital and had abundant time to

give to the reading, but later when I entered the ranks of a private practitioner with dispensary work as well, I accomplished the reading only by utilizing every spare minute, and most of the reading was done in the cars while on my way to see patients. Among my patients, I have two brothers interested in the work, a nurse who has just graduated and a young girl who has just entered the training school for nurses. This little band of four meets here at my office every Thursday evening to compare notes and read aloud, and we have made very fair progress with one set of books."

#### CLASS OF 1896.—"TRUTH SEEKERS."

##### OFFICERS.

*President*—Rev. Chas. C. Johnson, East Bloomfield, N. Y.  
*Vice Presidents*—Mrs. Francis W. Parker, Chicago, Ill.,  
 Miss Cynthia I. Boyd, Knoxville, Tenn.; Mrs. Anna  
 Hodgson, Athens, Ga.; Mr. F. G. Lewis, Birtle, Manitoba.  
*Secretary*—Miss Anna J. Young, 210 Devillers St., Pitts-  
 burg, Pa.

*Treasurer*—Mrs. Wheaton Smith, cor. Woodward Ave.  
 and Blaine St., Detroit, Mich.

*Class Trustee*—John A. Seaton, 20 Griswold St., Cleve-  
 land, Ohio.

##### CLASS FLOWER—FORGET-ME-NOT.

MEMBERS of '96 may congratulate themselves on their good fortune in taking up the C. L. S. C. course in the "Greek Year" as each year's work naturally leads up to the one beyond. The course for '93-4 promises to be very fine, including the study of Rome and the making of modern Europe, Roman and medieval art, Roman literature and the poetry of the medieval age, and political economy.

#### GRADUATE CLASSES.

A GRADUATE who recently reported the completion of the three years' course in English history and literature, writes, "I have been a 'shut-in,' unable to walk for twenty-seven years and I read my books alone, but this work rouses all my enthusiasm."

A MEMBER of '89, whose home was completely destroyed by fire in the recent burning of St. Johns, Newfoundland, writes that owing to losses she was unable to contribute toward the Episcopal headquarters at Chautauqua until after Christmas and is now anticipating the pleasure of contributing also to the '89 building at Chautauqua. This personal interest which far-away members feel in the welfare of "Old Chautauqua" is a pleasant evidence of their appreciation of her work.

A GRADUATE circle in Oskaloosa, Iowa, is at work upon the course in art history. One of the members writes, "Our Art History Circle is doing excellent work and we are delighted with the course. We are doing college work."

MRS. EMILY GOODRICH SMITH, of Waterbury, Conn., Class of '87, has been appointed state secretary of the C. L. S. C. for Connecticut. Mrs. Smith is a daughter of "Peter Parley," and brings to this new field not only her long experience as a literary worker, but hearty enthusiasm and deep devotion to the cause of Chautauqua. Connecticut Chautauquans will find their secretary more than willing to enter into their plans for the advancement of the work in that state.

#### LOCAL CIRCLES.

##### C. L. S. C. MOTTOES.

"We Study the Word and the Works of God."

"Let us Keep our Heavenly Father in the Midst."

"Never be Discouraged."

##### C. L. S. C. MEMORIAL DAYS.

OPENING DAY—October 1.

BRYANT DAY—November 3.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—November, second Sunday.

MILTON DAY—December 9.

COLLEGE DAY—January, last Thursday.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—February, second Sunday.

LONGFELLOW DAY—February 27.

HOMER DAY—March 28.

SHAKESPEARE DAY—April 23.

PHIDIAS DAY—April 24.

ADDISON DAY—May 1.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—May, second Sunday.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—July, second Sunday.

INAUGURATION DAY—August, first Saturday after first Tuesday; anniversary of C. L. S. C. at Chautauqua.

ST. PAUL'S DAY—August, second Saturday after first Tuesday; anniversary of the dedication of St. Paul's Grove at Chautauqua.

RECOGNITION DAY—August, third Wednesday after the first Tuesday.

##### THE C. L. S. C. IN SOUTH AFRICA.

MISS M. E. LANDFEAR, the indefatigable secretary for South Africa, sends an interesting

journal letter recounting her experience on a journey in the interests of the C. L. S. C.

She started from Wellington November 16,



going by train to Tulbaugh Station and riding in a cart from there to the village of the same name. Her account of the ride makes one feel less like grumbling over the poor roads of this country, bad as some of them are. "The driver told me," she writes, "that I would better not get into the cart till he had driven past a bad break in the road, and when I saw the cart go over I was glad I had followed his advice. My bundle fastened with a shawl strap jumped out and one end of it flew open, the violence of the fall forcing one strap off. The other passenger was a sewing machine agent, and each house that we passed we looked at questioningly, he wondering if any one in it wanted a sewing machine, I, if the C. L. S. C. Tulbaugh is a pretty village, one of the oldest in the colony; its church is a hundred years old. I addressed a gathering of people here and succeeded in rousing some enthusiasm over the Chautauqua course."

On the 23rd she writes from Worcester: "I spoke to an association of young people at the close of a Dutch lecture last evening, and found them doing thoroughly the course planned by Chautauqua for young folks. My next trip was to have been to Beaufort West, but a former pupil wrote me, 'It does not seem advisable to hold a Chautauqua meeting here. Those to whom I have spoken are opposed to it. People are much against societies here, and some have even felt they must withdraw from the Missionary Union. Beaufort is such a peculiar place.' Now I do not suppose that Beaufort is at all a 'peculiar place' for South Africa, nor do I feel that it would be 'useless' to go there, but there is not time to correspond now, so I must pass on to Kimberley."

A week was spent at that place, where she addressed the school teachers and received much encouragement. She also met a committee of the Diamond Fields Teachers' Association and told them of the C. L. S. C. They were about preparing a Shakespeare course and decided to propose the one outlined by the C. L. S. C.

East London was the next stopping place. A flourishing local circle was already in existence there and its circumference was much enlarged by a public meeting in a church and an address by Miss Landfear.

At Queenstown the people seemed eager to receive the new idea, and also at Bethuli, in the Orange Free State. Passing on to Bloemfontein, the capital of the Orange Free State, she found the schools closed for the Christmas holidays, and so many people absent from town that an audience of only thirty could be secured. They were interested however.

J-Apr.

A journey of a day and a night brought our traveler to Johannesburg in the Transvaal, or the South African Republic, as its people prefer to call the country. Here her record ends, with the promise of visiting Colesberg, Cradock, and Port Elizabeth before the close of her vacation.

#### NEW CIRCLES.

CANADA.—The progress of Island City Circle, which was organized last October in Montreal, is due to the united efforts of the class directed by a noble corps of officers.—The correspondent at Birtle, Manitoba, remarks an unusual degree of cold in the weather, and of warmth in Chautauqua enthusiasm. He continues, "My wife and I are still enjoying our readings in the C. L. S. C. course, this being my first year. I did not succeed in getting any to join us in the readings but I am very much encouraged in the prospect of a good-sized circle for another year, as by the end of this year, I will know better how to organize and get to work. I think it would be a good thing to have a C. L. S. C. day at the World's Fair at Chicago where we could have a grand rally, for there will be a great number that cannot go to Chautauqua this season. About the fifth of September would be a good date for this event, as many of us will be returning from the World's Sabbath School Convention at St. Louis at that time."—The scribe at New Westminster, British Columbia, says: "I am pleased to report that we have a very promising Chautauqua Circle formed in this city, organized in September. The readings were commenced in October and fortnightly meetings are held for review and debates on interesting subjects. At present we have eleven members with several more applying, and we hope to have a pleasant, prosperous winter."—The circle at Vancouver, British Columbia, is receiving acquisitions to its membership.

VERMONT.—A small circle recently come into existence at Westford, simply recites the lessons at its weekly meetings, pending decision upon some special plan for work.

MASSACHUSETTS.—A circle at Belchertown reports organization.—At Boston Neck (Suffield) a circle of considerable size has been formed.

NEW YORK.—Truth Seekers of Bridgewater avail themselves of the order of work outlined in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*, responding to roll call with news items, quotations, etc. Each week the president appoints members to make out questions on the next week's work. These questions are handed in on slips of paper to be answered by the class. Thus each

week's work is thoroughly reviewed. Variations are introduced into the meetings to break the monotony.—After an interesting time with the Greek proper names, the eighteen members of Whittier Circle of Sands St. Memorial Church (M. E.) Brooklyn, have sent to the Central Office for the pronunciation table. This circle is in a flourishing condition, all its members taking an active interest in the studies. Freshman Circle, of Brooklyn, composed entirely of aspirants for honors in ninety-six, is a lusty child. Only six months old it has a membership of about sixty, an average attendance at semi-monthly meetings of over forty, the majority of whom are able to report "work complete," in response to roll call; it rejoices in an energetic president, a learned judge, an efficient advisory board, and a semi-monthly newspaper, entitled the "Forget-me-not," in honor of the class flower. Its motto is "Be brief, be breezy," and its reading is apparently enjoyed by all the members. The reviews, as conducted by the members in turn, are interesting and profitable; the papers on pertinent subjects (notably the six or seven on Greek Mythology) are of a high order; the discussions on various topics are spirited and good-humored; the musical contributions are artistic and enjoyable; the social element is cultivated in a marked degree; and in every way the circle is an eminent success. It is a part of the department of literary work of Epworth League Chapter 1093, of Hanson Place, and partakes of the push and swing of that great and successful church organization. The circle motto is "Veritas Vincit."—Hempstead Circle at Pearsalls conducts regular meetings.

Columbian Circle, Chelsea M. E. Church, New York City, recently initiated three new members. It matters little that the small home circle of the same city has minimum form or formality in its conduct and that all its members are inclined to talk at once, so long as all are enthusiastic. They meet weekly from 8:30 to 10:30 p. m., and bring out by question or discussion the main facts of the week's reading, occasionally reading papers on subjects appropriate to the day or the study. The president conducts the required reading and assigns the program for each week. Thus far the work has progressed with interest and profit to all.—Springville Circle is a recent organization.—A circle at Tully began the Chautauqua studies in the middle of December and industriously hopes to catch up with the class.

NEW JERSEY.—The following report is received from Boonton: "We have started on a four years' crusade, determined to conquer Greek, Roman, English, and any other 'powers,'

home or foreign, we have occasion to encounter. In number we are less than a dozen, including regular members, readers, attachées, ranging in age from seventeen to seventy. These attachées are our husbands, who listen to our readings at home or gather with us in our local-social circle. At the semi-monthly meetings the lessons are reviewed by questions under preappointed questioners, free discussions prevail and so interested do we sometimes become, one might think we were actually living in Athens among the 400 B. C.'s. Having decided that Aspasia was at least quite as good and brighter than her masculine contemporaries, we have adopted her name for our circle.—N. B. (Note Well) Circle is the attractive name applied to a faithful class at Newark, whose weekly meetings are enjoyable and well attended.—Mont Clair Endeavor Circle is a zealous company of students recently organized, many of whom were already connected with the Central Circle.—Inspired by the success of a young men's circle formed from one of the Sunday-school classes, a circle of forty ladies has been organized in connection with the People's Palace of the Tabernacle, at Jersey City. About half the number desire to enroll regularly and take the examination, the others being too busy to render more than a regular attendance. The secretary adds, "I enjoyed last year's study so much that I intend to take up some course of Chautauqua study every year."

PENNSYLVANIA.—Providence Circle reports from Allegheny.—The circle at Conneautville has been enlarged by several new members.—Classes report progress at Millville and Rohers-town.—The projectors of the circle at Hanover had much hard work to get the circle started, but after persistent preaching and talking this was accomplished and now it is a most gratifying organization of twenty members, with prospect of large additions to its numbers next year. One of its meetings passed off as follows: Last evening at the usual time the circle was called to order and the exercises opened with prayer by the president. After roll call and noting of absentees the secretary stated that he had secured a book for recording of minutes, and presented a bill for the same. Grecian History was next reviewed by one of the members, followed by another on "The Relations of the United States with Foreign Powers." Next came a series of intensely interesting five-minute talks on the following subjects, conducted by persons appointed the previous evening: Influence of Grecian Architecture, Columbus Monuments, Mortality in the United States, Greek Oracles, The Miller and His Mill, Medical Science.—Whittier Circle of Minersville has ten

regular members. In addition to the usual program it is enjoying the Extension Course of Lectures.—Thirteen members compose the circle at Sayre.

MARYLAND.—The class at Hagerstown is keeping apace with the required work.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.—A circle organized in connection with the Waugh M. E. Church at Washington reports that in the general proceedings of its meetings it has overlooked discussion of a circle title. A circle of the progressive spirit which characterizes this body of students will soon make for itself a name, and as soon as it does readers of these reports would like to hear it.

FLORIDA.—At Dunedin a circle has been organized, adapted in character to suit the requirements of the majority of its members, who wish to read some edifying works but cannot undertake the full course of study.

KENTUCKY.—Columbia Circle of Madisonville, organized in September, '92, has twenty-four regular and forty-three local members.

ALABAMA.—The secretary from Talladega sends the following report: "Our little circle, 'The Columbian,' is wide-awake. Our number is small, but every member is interested and doing all in his power to make the circle a success. I think we will have a large circle next year. Individually I consider being a Chautauquan one of the greatest privileges I ever enjoyed."

TEXAS.—Hewitt Circle, an enterprising class organized in January, after six weeks' existence is almost abreast with the work.—A circle of about a dozen members has enlisted at Denton.

OKLAHOMA.—A circle of fifteen members enrolls from Chandler.

OHIO.—At Canton Columbian C. L. S. C. of Trinity Reformed Church, the Epworth C. L. S. C. of the First M. E. Church, First M. E. Church C. L. S. C., the Baptist Church C. L. S. C., the Presbyterian Church C. L. S. C., Ladies' Afternoon C. L. S. C., and Trinity Southern Church C. L. S. C. are prospering with a membership of 16, 21, 12, 21, 12, 15, and 12, respectively.—Athenian Circle of Fostoria is solid for '96.—A number of readers at Lakewood who covered last year's course begin the new year aright by regularly enrolling in the Class of '95. They call themselves the Research Club.—The circle at New Concord is unpretentious but earnest.—The Faithfuls at Ohio City are at work.—Whittier Circle of Toledo is steadily striving to catch up with the required readings, patiently denying itself all the little extras of program which while enjoyable require time.

INDIANA.—Carrie L. Stallard Circle of Rus-

sellville pursues its studies in accordance with a regular schedule. A teacher is selected to lead the discussion of each subject by the class. Thirty minutes is devoted to the observance of memorial days.—Frankfort has a band of Chautauqua workers.

ILLINOIS.—In Chicago The Young Folks' Club has been started, its object being to provide a good and pleasant home for young folks who work in this city and are obliged to board. The secretary says, "We have a beautiful home and enjoy good times in it, but we wish to take up some line of work which will be improving and have decided on the Chautauqua course."—South Park Avenue Chautauqua Circle in Chicago, organized last fall, has an attendance of about a dozen members at its regular weekly meetings. Its motto is, "The one exclusive sign of a thorough knowledge is the power of teaching your friend in Christian work."—A company at Capron is pursuing the studies.—The members of the Chautauqua Division of the Woman's Club at Decatur engaged in the study of Grecian History met last Friday evening at the home of the president for the purpose of testing their knowledge of the study just completed. The names of ten battles, twenty places, and thirty persons in Greek History were selected by the president, and known only to her until the questions on each were asked.

"It was not found too easy to tell on the spur of the moment who the generals were on both sides, and who gained the victory in these ten or more battles, or what important thing happened in certain places, etc. As we were only required to tell one thing about each person, if nothing more could be remembered, we could always fall back on the fact that we were sure he was dead. After such a severe test we were ready to do justice to the nice refreshments which were served, and again to try our skill at character guessing. We were able to do this in several cases, even when such far away heroes as Hercules were chosen. Though we departed fully convinced that there is much of Greek history we do not know, we were equally sure that we had spent a most delightful evening finding it out. We think that if some of those secluded women from the homes of Athens could have looked down from the Elysian fields on nine or ten nineteenth century American Chautauqua women trudging down the middle of the street at 10:30 p. m., they would be deeply impressed with the progress and high privileges of this age."

MICHIGAN.—The fifteen members of the circle at Burr Oak, although having begun late, and having had almost double work to do, maintain a

full measure of interest. At the first meeting numbers were given to each, who in turn prepare the programs.—Another band of fifteen, at Ann Arbor, is wheeling into line.—Byron C.L.S.C. is the name of a band of seven workers brought together through the efforts of a plucky little woman who started out to read alone, but feeling that mutual benefit might be derived, finally persuaded six of her friends to join the great circle of Truth Seekers.

WISCONSIN.—A steady-going class of workers is located at Spring Green.

MINNESOTA.—Athena Chautauqua Circle at Minneapolis, and a circle at Elbow Lake are recent organizations.

IOWA.—The circle at Alden organizes too late to digest the whole year's course, but is making arrangements to enjoy the nibble which opportunity offers it.—John Greenleaf Whittier Circle of Deep River reports: "Our society meets every Friday evening at the home of one of our members. Sometimes we take up the programs given in THE CHAUTAUQUAN, and at other times meet and read the week's lesson over. Our circle is weak as yet, but we are very much interested in the work."—At the very informal meetings held weekly at Scranton by the Columbians, the regular program is followed as far as time permits. A committee of two is appointed by the president to see that a leader is prepared for the respective subjects.—In addition to the welcome news that the Spirit Lake Circle meetings are attractive and profitable, the correspondent at that place states that grounds have been purchased and preparations are being made for an assembly there next summer.—The new band of students at Walnut is known as the Utopian.

MISSOURI.—Pallas Athene Circle at Pleasant Hill, and Carthage Columbia Chautauqua Circle at Carthage, have their work well under way.

—The ten members composing the class at Longwood have sent in their membership blanks in due order.—Several persons not pledged to the full course meet with Clyde Circle of Kansas City.

KANSAS.—The organization at Burden forwards the names of its officers.

NEBRASKA.—The following encouraging report comes from Fremont: "We have an enthusiastic circle of about thirty readers, many of whom are enrolled at the Central Office. Five will probably graduate this spring. Early in the year the circle adopted the Canadian plan—an equal division into two sides; credits given for prompt attendance, quotation at roll-call, readings completed to date, and performance of all duties assigned."

COLORADO.—The Silver Columbine of Denver is an accomplished circle, so far as accomplishment of work is concerned. Having organized late, it is almost up to schedule time in its studies, besides keeping up dictation spelling exercises, which have been found very beneficial by all. The members enrolled are an enthusiastic ten.

CALIFORNIA.—A circle organized in the First M. E. Church of Oakland is christened Sequoia and anticipates other and hopeful particulars for a later report.

IDAHO.—Genesee Circle reports as doing well.

MONTANA.—Great Falls Circle of twenty-five members has been organized under adverse circumstances, deep snows and a mild form of la grippe causing some who intended entering to wait. This is the only circle in Montana yet heard from.

WASHINGTON.—Columbian Circle of Seattle numbers seventy-five regular with four alumni as local members. Twenty members belong to the home department, six are unable to be at the meetings but keep up readings in their homes. The circle is doing good work, following the regular programs, with local items of interest. All memorial days are observed. Plymouth Congregational Church has given the Columbians the use of its fine parlors.—The Neotropheans (Greek for "bright jewels") is the name of the Chautauqua Circle organized at Lake Washington. This circle started out auspiciously with twenty members enrolled and has since received six new members. The president is an alumnus, while the vice president and secretary are old Chautauquans. The committee of instruction assists the president in preparing the programs, the members taking part in turn and a lively discussion on interesting points as they come up serve to fix in the mind doubtful points and important dates. The readings of the week are reviewed either by a member in a paper or by the class as a whole with a leader. Music follows, then an essay on the subject pertaining to the lesson. The meetings have been instructive as well as very entertaining and have been well attended. The circle meets at the residences of the members.—Tyee Circle, of twenty members, was the first new circle to organize this fall. Last year the leader had a small circle of a half dozen, meeting in his home. The membership is greatly enlarged and a new name chosen, by which it will be seen they propose to be the "Chief" circle. They meet every Wednesday evening in the parlors of the Presbyterian Church. The Royal Circle has fifteen mem-



bers. A newspaper clipping reads: "This is a Royal circle, so named by the president who has lately come to the Trinity M. E. Church; recognizing the good to flow from a Chautauqua Circle, he hastened to call the friends together. They meet every Tuesday evening, a month at a time with the members. Although a month behind in commencing work they have saved the moments and are even with the work. Battery Street Circle, of ten members, most of whom belong to the Battery Street Church, has been assisted by the pastor of this church, who, though conducting revival services this fall, found time to aid in this work."

The Vincents of Tacoma are to be congratulated on the election of their president to the state legislature. Many of the twenty-eight members are of Class '95. The Longfellows, twenty-six in number, are doing good work, meeting regularly. The secretary is an alumnus of Class '89 and one of the earnest workers of Tacoma. It is the pioneer circle, with members of the four undergraduate classes in its ranks. The Manzanita Circle has among its twenty members four '93's to graduate at the assembly next summer. University Circle is one of the most active ones in Tacoma. All its twenty-six members are of the Class of '96. First its meetings were semimonthly, but soon changed to each week. The pastor of the Central Church and several from the Puget Sound University are among the members. The Del-tas, eighteen in number, are enthusiastic in the work. Organizing in November they commenced in earnest and soon caught up. The new map of Greece is used in their meetings. Excelsior Circle of ten members has organized in the Presbyterian Church. No report has come from Mason Chapel Circle, but though few in numbers, its members expect it to be the nucleus of a good circle.

Medical Lake Circle of fifteen members was the first new circle east of the mountains to report organization.—Douglass County has the honor of having a flourishing circle of twenty-five members at Waterville. Though snowed in, Chautauqua enthusiasm keeps hearts warm. Classes '93, '94, '95, and '96 are represented in the circle.—Whittier Circle of Chehalis has sixteen members. It reports, "Our circle is prospering. We meet weekly and are generally in session from two and a half to three hours. All are well pleased." The circle was organized by the wide-awake pastor of the M. E. Church, a Chautauquan of years of experience. Its regular meetings are held on Monday evenings.—New Whatcom Circle of twenty members has for its president an alumnus.—Sehome Circle,

also of twenty members, is in its third year, with members of Classes '94, '95, '96, also several alumni, including the president.—Fairhaven Circle, of twenty members, has been prosperous the past year. It comprises busy people in this fair city.—The Epworth Circle, of fifteen members, has been organized at Gilman, King County. The president, who is the pastor of the M. E. Church, is a member of Class '94, and the secretary an alumnus of Class '88. The following is an extract from the secretary's letter: "We have fifteen members here and meet every Monday evening. Sometimes we have quite lively times. Two doctors, three lawyers, three school teachers, and the superintendent of the mines, are part of our fifteen, so you can imagine in our debates we have hot discussions. I tried to get some of the young miners interested enough to join, but only two started." There can be a good work done in getting the miners interested in the C. L. S. C.—Everett Circle, of fifteen members, is one of the latest to organize, but is a most interesting one. The president is an alumna of Class '88. She writes: "Our circle is growing in numbers."

Ten persons at Tekoa, Whitman County, have organized a circle in the Congregational Church from amongst those who thought at first to have a debating club.—Fifteen members at Castle Rock, in Cowlitz County, early in the season organized a circle and are earnestly at work.—From Mt. Vernon comes the report: Mt. Vernon Circle, of fifteen members, is a new and ably officered organization in this Skagit County city.—Snohomish Circle, of fifteen members, has reorganized and is doing good work.—A circle was organized at Kent, King County, with an enrollment of six full course and seven temporary members. Considerable interest has been shown at the two meetings that were held.

NEW MEXICO.—A class at Chalma is struggling with home duties and delay caused by preparation for the holidays.

#### OLD CIRCLES.

CANADA.—Pleasant Hour Circle of Brantford, Ont., is as large this year as ever, having ten graduates, ten undergraduates and two of the new class; thirteen persons are allied with the circle as local members. In regard to their programs all the exercises are general and of such a nature that the whole circle participates in them, as may be seen from their plan:

1. *Quotation*—Every member gives a quotation. Many come provided with several quotations so as to avoid repeating one already given. This gives us about thirty quotations. These

are preserved and sometimes published. 2. *Fact*—Each member gives some fact in the life of the author or historical character of the evening. Here also most of our members come provided with a number of facts so that repetitions may be avoided. This gives us an admirable review of the life, works, and times of the character selected. 3. *Question* on the lesson—Each member brings one or more questions on the week's reading. Thirty questions touch upon the salient points of the week's work and constitute an admirable review. These and the Questions and Answers bring up for discussion the whole week's work. 4. *Memoranda* review—At each meeting we take up six questions of the memoranda, discuss what the questions mean and how they should be answered. We try to arrange them so that they also will form a kind of review of the work just completed. 5. Our closing responsive exercise is, "The Lord bless and keep thee, etc."

This circle's scheme arranged for the year, for the observance of memorial and Shakespearean evenings is very meritorious, and the special programs forwarded are good indeed. For the celebration of Shakespeare Day the program reads:

#### JULIUS CÆSAR EVENING.

- I. 1. Study song—"Break Thou the Bread of Life."
2. Concert exercise—Chautauqua mottoes.
3. Secretary's report.
- II. 1. Quotations from "Julius Cæsar."
2. Discussion.
  - a. What is the leading thought of the play?
  - b. Is Brutus a true patriot?
  - c. What noble characteristics in his wife Portia?
3. Facts about Shakespeare's associates.
4. Music—Chautauqua song.
- III. 1. Questions and Answers.
2. Questions suggested by the readings.
3. Memoranda review.
4. Record.
- IV. 1. Announcements for next meeting.
2. Class mottoes.
3. Evening hymn.
4. Closing responses.

—The Fernwood, of Victoria, B. C., is in its second year; ten of the twenty-two members are of Class '95, twelve of Class '96. The circle is not a denominational one, although most of the members are in the Pandora Ave. M. E. Church.

MAINE.—Bible Reading and Garnet Seal courses are among the things that interest the Evening Stars of Union.—Sweet Brier Circle at Cape Elizabeth reports reorganization with five new members.—The correspondent from Bingham says that earlier in his career the Romans made various experiments to get at the best methods of study, finally settling upon the plan here quoted: "At each meeting the studies are assigned to certain members who make out

questions on them, using their own judgment as to the number, which usually does not exceed forty on a subject. After roll call and quotations these are passed among the members as the studies are taken up, and each orally answers his question as the number on its margin indicates his turn. We read other authors upon the subjects of study and bring before the circle such fresh information as we may gather therefrom. We also have essays upon topics connected with the lessons and abstracts from leading articles in THE CHAUTAUQUAN. At one time we chose two captains and, dividing the circle into halves, questioned upon the Required Readings. But this plan was soon dropped as it detracted in a measure from our other work. Our circle is small but we are workers, and every member understands that the work we are doing is not entirely that of pleasure but of inestimable value."

NEW HAMPSHIRE.—Pawtuckaways of Epping are finishing last year's work in connection with part of this year's. They enjoyed a very interesting program at New Year's.—One of the best and pleasantest social occasions that has taken place in Tilton for a long time was the reception given in the Congregational church, February 17, by the Archers Chautauqua Circle and members of the Winipiseogee Lake Assembly C. L. S. C., to the Rev. Mr. Hutchin and his wife, the former of whom has served four years as president in both organizations. About ninety ladies and gentlemen, most of them Chautauquans, were present, including people from Nashua, Concord, Franklin, and Meredith. The reception was followed by a banquet at the hotel dining room, which was tastefully decorated with flowers and plants. On each plate was a handsome souvenir, bearing the date and name of each person. Among the many enjoyable speeches, poems, and letters following the banquet was an excellent talk on C. L. S. C. work, by the Rev. Dr. Durrell. After the speeches the president of the evening presented Mr. Hutchin with a purse of twenty-five dollars. The toast "Good night" was responded to, and the company dispersed.

MASSACHUSETTS.—Circle Kalmia of North Middleboro organized for the year. Among its local members are two school teachers who are taking part of the course. Others also frequently meet with them as they assemble at the different homes. The circle has always been a small, but an exceedingly pleasant one and though at first not formally organized has been in existence since 1880.—The class at Ayres Village continues its studies.—Orchis Circle at Goshen reorganized promptly with a mem-

bership of sixteen of whom four are '96's. Much interest is shown at the well-attended weekly meetings.—New members have swelled the ranks of the circle at Florence.—Philomath Circle of Chelsea meets once in two weeks at private houses. The secretary says, "Our programs are very simple. We each have a quotation from some noted person, usually an author, at roll call. We then take up the Questions and Answers and recite with books closed. Each member brings in six original questions on the reading for the two weeks. We have adopted the plan of keeping a record of points gained, and lost, and find it a great help. A member is never absent unless it is absolutely necessary, and that tends to keep up the interest. We enjoy our meetings and are loyal Chautauquans."

—The class at Campello have enrolled seven '96's.—The correspondent of Samoset Circle, Boston, writes: "Our circle increases each year in numbers and interest. Although we do not confine ourselves to church members, the majority of the circle belong to the Warren Ave. Baptist Church where we meet twice a month. I can say for the other members as well as for myself that through the Chautauqua reading we are trying to work out what God has wrought in us, and prepare ourselves to serve Him better day by day."

CONNECTICUT.—Truth Seekers of Cheshire have a smaller membership of regular members this year than usual. Their local members number eighteen.—East Pearl Street C. L. S. C. of New Haven has half a dozen regular readers and about twenty locals. Good programs and lessons are the rule, as is shown by the credits given systematically at the bi-monthly meetings.—Athena Circle at West Suffield has in its ranks, graduate, new, and local members, the former of whom are reviewing the Greek course instead of taking up any of this year's special course.

NEW YORK.—All members of the class at Canton are regularly enrolled.—The circles of the Brooklyn Chautauqua Union reported as active are, Brooklyn Chautauqua Alumni, Adriel, Altus, Beecher, Hurlbut (a new circle), Longfellow, Meredith, No Name, Pathfinder, Philosopher, Pierian, Strong Place, Whittier (new this season), and the A. E. Dunning Alumni. The latter opens its sessions with a Chautauqua song, and is led in prayer by its president or sometimes instead reads the prayer of Thomas à Kempis or a selection from the Scripture, repeating the Lord's Prayer in concert. This year they are deep in the "Story of the Nations." The work is assigned to the various members,—the history to one, to others the literature, the

manners and customs, etc. After the papers are read, the meeting is open for questions or discussion. Each member brings a fact embodying the gist of the lesson; the one considered best is selected and repeated, with the facts given at previous meetings. We have found this profitable, for at the close of the year we find ourselves in possession of a number of facts so indelibly impressed on our memory that they are always available. We attend the lectures and sociables of the Brooklyn Union, one of our members serving on the social committee.—Mistletoe Circle at New York City is progressing, having gained three members of the "new class."—Programs of Chester Hill C. L. S. C. of Mt. Vernon, which have been uniformly interesting for the whole time, encourage the acquisition of knowledge and foster original thought. The secretary writes:

"As our membership is small, the meetings are conducted in an informal manner. We are unable to celebrate the memorial days separately, so we recognize them in connection with the regular meetings, by giving a paper, quotations, or talks on the character for the day falling nearest that of the meeting. The members are encouraged to talk freely on all subjects of interest, to criticize pronunciations and doubtful points and ask questions for information, or as catch-questions. In this way, those who are diffident in regard to giving an opinion of their own, are drawn out. Occasionally a teacher or an outsider drops in and helps us with the meeting, but we usually conduct them independently, which we think is good for us. We do not have singing at the meeting, because we have not sufficient vocal talent, neither are we able to procure a lecturer to deliver any of the lectures. But on the whole, the members deem the exercises interesting and enjoyable and do not consider two hours too long for a meeting."—Rural Circle at Hecla Works is alive.—The circle at Hoosick Falls has on its programs such interesting features as roll call answered by an original bit of poetry from each member, questions, reading, vocal solos, illustrated addresses, and debates.—The record of one meeting's work denotes that the Johnsonville Circle is applying its energies to advantage.—The four programs sent by Epworth Circle at Jamestown are of a high degree of excellency, including varied methods of responding to roll call, studies, papers, sketches of important lives, table talks, music both vocal and instrumental, pronunciation tests, debates, etc.

Many more reports have been received, which for lack of space are reserved for the next issue of THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

## THE LIBRARY TABLE.

### A SPRING PRELUDE.

O TARDY April, is thy full choir here?  
The redbreast, picket of the swarming spring,  
Whistles a sudden chirrup of alarm  
Before his level flight; and soft at eve  
His melody, on grass half-robin high,  
Falls like a vesper's throbbings from aloft.  
The sparrow tempts the turf to faster growth  
With her coy nesting, while her happy mate,  
High in the promise-reddened maple-top,  
O'er-bubbles with ecstasies of hoarded song.  
The mellow tunings of the oriole's flute,  
Rich as his coat, foretell his summer joy  
And pitch the key of gladness for the year.  
Here is the bluebird, best of mates and sires,  
And pewee, restless as a lover's fear,  
With cousin phoebe, bleating tearfully.  
The humble bee, that, nectar-drunk, shall soon  
Linger within the sybaritic flower,  
Feeds his impatience at the cautious bud;  
And from the furrow's wet and windy reach,  
Where March but lately swung his icy scythe,  
Ripples the velvet air about the cheek,  
Laden with faintest chorusing, as though  
The brimming silence overflowed in sound.

—From "*The Winter Hour*."\*

### A SCULPTOR'S STUDIO.

MIRIAM stopped an instant in an antechamber, to look at a half-finished bust, the features of which seemed to be struggling out of the stone; and, as it were, scattering and dissolving its hard substance by the glow of feeling and intelligence. As the skillful workman gave stroke after stroke of the chisel with apparent carelessness, but sure effect, it was impossible not to think that the outer marble was merely an extraneous environment; the human countenance within its embrace must have existed there since the limestone ledges of Carrara were first made. Another bust was nearly completed, though still one of Kenyon's most trustworthy assistants was at work, giving delicate touches, shaving off an impalpable something, and leaving little heaps of marble-dust to attest it.

"As these busts in the block of marble," thought Miriam, "so does our individual fate exist in the limestone of time. We fancy that we carve it out; but its ultimate shape is prior to all our action."

\*The Winter Hour and Other Poems. By Robert Underwood Johnson. New York: The Century Co.

Kenyon was in the inner room, but hearing a step in the antechamber, he came out to receive his visitor.

"I will not offer you my hand," said he; "it is grimy with Cleopatra's clay."

"No; I will not touch clay; it is earthy and human," answered Miriam. "I have come to try whether there is any calm and coolness among your marbles. My own art is too nervous, too passionate, too full of agitation, for me to work at it whole days together, without intervals of repose. So, what have you to show me?"

"Pray look at everything here," said Kenyon. "I love to have painters see my work. Their judgment is unprejudiced, and more valuable than that of the world generally, from the light which their own art throws on mine."

Miriam looked round at the specimens in marble or plaster, of which there were several in the room, comprising originals or casts of most of the designs that Kenyon had thus far produced.

There were also several portrait-busts, comprising those of two or three of the illustrious men of our own country, whom Kenyon, before he left America, had asked permission to model. Other faces there were, too, of men who (if the brevity of their remembrance, after death, can be argued from their little value in life) should have been represented in snow rather than marble. Posterity will be puzzled what to do with busts like these, the concretions and petrifications of a vain self-estimate; but will find, no doubt, that they serve to build into stone walls, or burn into quicklime, as well as if the marble had never been blocked into the guise of human heads.

But it is an awful thing, indeed, this endless endurance, this almost indestructibility, of a marble bust! Whether in our own case, or that of other men, it bids us sadly measure the little time during which our lineaments are likely to be of interest to any human being. It is especially singular that Americans should care about perpetuating themselves in this mode. The brief duration of our families, as a hereditary household, renders it next to a certainty that the great-grandchildren will not know their father's grandfather, and that half a century hence, at farthest, the hammer of the auctioneer will thump its knock-down blow against his blockhead, sold at so much for the pound of



stone! And it ought to make us shiver, the idea of leaving our features to be a dusty-white ghost among strangers of another generation, who will take our nose between their thumb and fingers (as we have seen men do by Cæsar's), and infallibly break it off, if they can do so without detection!

"Yes," said Miriam, who had been revolving some such thoughts as the above, "it is a good state of mind for mortal man, when he is content to leave no more definite memorial than the grass, which will sprout kindly and speedily over his grave, if we do not make the spot barren with marble. Methinks, too, it will be a fresher and better world, when it flings off this great burden of stony memories, which the ages have deemed it a piety to heap upon its back."

"What you say," remarked Kenyon, "goes against my whole art. Sculpture, and the delight which men naturally take in it, appear to me a proof that it is good to work with all time before our view."

"Well, well," answered Miriam, "I must not quarrel with you for flinging your heavy stones at poor Posterity, and, to say the truth, I think you are as likely to hit the mark as anybody. These busts now, much as I seem to scorn them, make me feel as if you were a magician. You turn feverish men into cool, quiet marble. What a blessed change for them! Would you could do as much for me!"—*From Hawthorne's "Marble Faun."*

#### WORDS THAT ARE NOT WORDS.

As there are books that are not books, so there are words that are not words. Most of them are usurpers, interlopers, or vulgar pretenders; some are deformed creatures, with only half a life in them; but some of them are legitimate enough in their pretensions, although oppressive, intolerable, useless. Words that are not words sometimes die spontaneously; but many linger, living a precarious life on the outskirts of society, uncertain of their position, and a cause of great discomfort to all right-thinking, straightforward people.

These words-no-words are in many cases the consequence of a misapprehension or whimsical perversion of some real word. Sitting at dinner beside a lady whom it was always a pleasure to look upon, I offered her a croquette, which she declined, adding, in a confidential whisper, "I am Banting." I turned with surprise in my face (for she had no likeness to the obese London upholsterer) and heard the *naïf* confession that she lived in daily fear lest the

polished plumpness which so delighted my eye should develop into corpulence, and that therefore she had adopted Banting's system of diet, the doing of which she expressed by the grotesque participle *banting*. She was not alone in its use, I soon learned. And thus, because a proper name happened to end in *ing*, it was used as a participle formed upon the assumed verb *bant*.

I saw once, before a little shop with some herbs in the window, a sign which ran thus:

#### INDIAN OPATHIST.

I was puzzled for a moment to divine what an opathist might be. But, of course, I saw in the next moment that the vender of the herbs in the little shop, thinking that his practice had as good a right as any other to a big name, and deceived by the accent which some persons give to *homœopathy* and *allopathy*, had called his practice Indian-Opathy, and himself an Indian-Opathist. As great a blunder was made by an apothecary, who, wishing to give a name to a new remedy for cold and cough, advertised it widely as *coldine*. Now, the termination *ine* is of Latin origin, and means having the quality of; as *metalline*, having the quality of metal; *alkaline*, having the quality of alkali; *canine*, having the qualities of a dog; *asinine*, those of an ass. And so this apothecary, wishing to make a name that would sound as fine as *glycerine*, and *stearin*, and the like, actually advertised his remedy for a cold as something that had the quality of a cold.

The rudest peasants do better than that by language, for they are content with their mother tongue. A gentleman who was visiting one of the remotest rural districts of England, met a barefooted girl carrying a pail of water. Floating on the top of the water was a disc of wood a little less in diameter than the rim of the pail. "What's that, my lass?" he asked. "Thot?" (with surprise) "why, thot's a *stiller*." It was a simple but effective contrivance for stilling the water as it was carried. The word is not in the dictionaries, but they contain no better English.—*From Richard Grant White's "Words and Their Uses."*

#### AMPHION.

My father left a park to me,  
But it is wild and barren,  
A garden too with scarce a tree,  
And waster than a warren:  
Yet say the neighbors when they call,  
It is not bad but good land,

And in it is the germ of all  
That grows within the woodland.

O had I lived when song was great  
In days of old Amphion,  
And ta'en my fiddle to the gate,  
Nor cared for seed or scion!  
And had I lived when song was great,  
And legs of trees were limber,  
And ta'en my fiddle to the gate,  
And fiddled in the timber!

'Tis said he had a tuneful tongue,  
Such happy intonation,  
Wherever he sat down and sung  
He left a small plantation;  
Wherever in a lonely grove  
He set up his forlorn pipes,  
The gouty oak began to move,  
And flounder into hornpipes.

The mountain stirr'd its bushy crown,  
And, as tradition teaches,  
Young ashes pirouetted down  
Coquetting with young beeches;  
And briony-vine and ivy-wreath  
Ran forward to his rhyming,  
And from the valleys underneath  
Came little copses climbing.

The linden broke her ranks and rent  
The woodbine wreaths that bind her,  
And down the middle, buzz! she went  
With all her bees behind her:  
The poplars, in long order due,  
With cypress promenaded,  
The shock-head willows two and two  
By rivers galloped.

O, nature first was fresh to men,  
And wanton without measure;  
So youthful and so flexible then,  
You moved her at your pleasure.  
Twang out, my fiddle! shake the twigs!  
And make her dance attendance;  
Blow, flute, and stir the stiff-set sprigs,  
And scirrhous roots and tendons.

'Tis vain! in such a brassy age  
I could not move a thistle;  
The very sparrows in the hedge  
Scarce answer to my whistle;  
Or at the most, when three-parts-sick  
With strumming and with scraping  
A jackass heehaws from the rick,  
The passive oxen gaping.

And I must work thro' months of toil,  
And years of cultivation,

Upon my proper patch of soil  
To grow my own plantation.  
I'll take the showers as they fall,  
I will not vex my bosom:  
Enough if at the end of all  
A little garden blossom.

—*Alfred Tennyson.*

#### SELF-CONSCIOUSNESS.

SELF-CONSCIOUSNESS does not always come from vanity or a desire to be admired. It sometimes arises from having a very humble or poor opinion of one's self, but in either case it comes from one central cause; thinking about one's self. This habit of mind must be gotten rid of before any one can become truly an agreeable companion in society. Sometimes its effect is to make people very bashful: it causes the cheek to redden, the eye to fall, and the lips to stammer, and all these signs of self-consciousness detract from the pleasure we afford to our companions. Often this bashfulness is natural, or, as we say, constitutional, and causes great suffering to those afflicted with it. How to rid one's self of this sensitiveness and painful self-consciousness is the question. I will tell you how a great man, the Rev. Sidney Smith, an English clergyman who became a celebrated wit and a very great favorite in society, accomplished it. He said he suddenly discovered that all mankind were not solely employed in observing young Sidney Smith; that, in fact, they took very little notice of him. So instead of thinking whether people were observing him, he turned the tables and began observing them, and thus forgot all about himself. He further said that he found that people quickly detected shamming, so he determined to act and speak naturally, just as he felt and thought. This cured him of his bashfulness, and made him one of the most easy mannered gentlemen of his day.

But I have often known persons whose self-consciousness took on the form of a kind of moral vanity. They were constantly conscious of trying to be good—trying to do their best, and they wanted to be noticed for doing it. Now, strange to say, very often these persons' self-consciousness of the best effort and intention, would in speech disparage or, as we say, "run down" everything they did. I remember one girl who came to my school, many years ago, who would always say when she handed in her written exercises, "My work is not fit to be seen, but it is the best I can do," and this when her exercises were really beautifully written and entirely correct. She always knew her lessons, yet she

would say, "Oh, I have no talent for learning anything, and I don't see any use in my father's spending money to send me to school." When she would hand in a composition she would almost always say, "It's miserable stuff; I can't write a composition, and it's no use to try," and yet her composition would, as likely as not, be a very good one. At first I used to feel sorry for her because she had so poor an opinion of her abilities, and would try to cheer and encourage her. But as time went on and I found this was only a habit, and that her motive seemed to be to gain praise, I ceased to say anything to her except that I was sorry she could not do more satisfactory work. After I had said this a few times, she was not so positive in her assertions that her work was of no account. You see the real motive with her was not a genuine, but a sham humility that sought to be praised, a hypocrisy that soon became very disagreeable both to her teachers and companions.

For those who are troubled with a self-consciousness that has not its root in vanity, but in a genuinely humble opinion of one's self, and perhaps consciousness of failings or of personal disadvantages, there is but one cure, and that is in habitual effort to think about and become interested in something outside of ourselves. I once knew an excellent and noble Quaker lady who gave the most beautiful and interesting Bible readings in public. She was once asked if it did not frighten her to stand before a large audience and speak to the people. She replied, "It did at first, but I learned not to think of people at all, but to lift my heart and think only of God, and that I was speaking for Him, and then I was never frightened any more." This, then, was the secret of her composure and serenity. She ceased thinking of herself; she thought of God, and that thought gave her courage and the most beautiful self-possession.

There is one thing that will greatly help any one to be composed and self-forgetful and easy in manner, and that is, not to have to think of one's clothes—in other words, to be carefully, neatly, and appropriately dressed. One cannot, perhaps, always have just such clothes as one might wish, but still all can avoid conspicuous articles of dress that would make one conscious of clothes; can always have tidy shoes and gloves, and feel sure of being at least neat and respectable in personal appearance.—*From Helen Ekin Starrett's "Letters to a Little Girl."*\*

\*Chicago: Searle & Gorton.

#### THE COMPOSURE OF QUAKERS.

I WAS traveling in a stage coach with three male Quakers, buttoned up in the straightest non-conformity of their sect. We stopped to bait at Andover, where a meal, partly tea apparatus, partly supper, was set before us. My friends confined themselves to the tea-table. I in my way took supper. When the landlady brought the bill, the eldest of my companions discovered that she had charged for both meals. This was resisted. Mine hostess was very clamorous and positive. Some mild arguments were used on the part of the Quakers, for which the heated mind of the good lady seemed by no means a fit recipient. The guard came in with his usual peremptory notice. The Quakers pulled out their money, and formally tendered it—so much for tea—I, in humble imitation, tendering mine—for the supper which I had taken. She would not relax in her demand. So they all three quietly put up their silver, as did myself, and marched out of the room, the eldest and gravest going first, with myself closing up the rear, who thought I could not do better than follow the example of such grave and warrantable personages. We got in. The steps went up. The coach drove off. The murmurs of mine hostess, not very indistinctly or ambiguously pronounced, became after a time inaudible—and now my conscience, which the whimsical scene had for a while suspended, beginning to give some twitches, I waited, in the hope that some justification would be offered by these serious people for the seeming injustice of their conduct. To my great surprise, not a syllable was dropped on the subject. They sat as mute as at a meeting. At length the eldest of them broke silence, by inquiring of his next neighbor, "Hast thee heard how indigoes go at the India House?" and the question operated as a soporific on my moral feeling as far as Exeter.—*Charles Lamb.*

#### FIRST GLIMPSE OF PRESIDENT LINCOLN.

I SHALL not easily forget the first time I ever saw Abraham Lincoln. It must have been about the 18th or 19th of February, 1861. It was rather a pleasant afternoon in New York City, as he arrived there from the west, to remain a few hours, and then pass on to Washington, to prepare for his inauguration. I saw him on Broadway, near the site of the present post office. He came down, I think, from Canal Street, to stop at the Astor House. The broad spaces, sidewalks, and street in the neighborhood, and for some distance, were crowded

with solid masses of people, many thousands. The omnibuses and other vehicles had all been turned off, leaving an unusual hush in that busy part of the city. Presently two or three shabby hack barouches made their way with some difficulty through the crowd and drew up at the Astor House entrance. A tall figure stepped out of the center of these barouches, paused leisurely on the sidewalk, looked up at the granite walls and looming architecture of the grand old hotel—then, after a relieving stretch of arms and legs, turned round for over a minute to slowly and good-humoredly scan the appearance of the vast and silent crowds. There were no speeches—no compliments—no welcome—as far as I could hear, not a word said. Still much anxiety was concealed in that quiet. Cautious persons had feared some marked insult or indignity to the president-elect—for he possessed no personal popularity at all in New York City, and very little political. But it was evidently tacitly agreed that if the few political supporters of Mr. Lincoln present would entirely abstain from any demonstration on their side, the immense majority, who were anything but supporters, would abstain on their side also. The result was a sulky, unbroken silence, such as certainly never before characterized so great a New York crowd.

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man roar and magnetism, unlike any other sound in the universe—the glad exulting thunder-shouts of countless unloosed throats of men! But on this occasion, not a voice, not a sound. From the top of an omnibus (driven up one side, close by, and blocked by the curbstone and the crowds) I had, I say, a capital view of it all, and especially of Mr. Lincoln, his look and gait—his perfect composure and coolness—his unusual and uncouth height, his dress of complete black, stovepipe hat pushed back on the head, dark brown complexion, seamed and wrinkled yet canny-looking face, black, bushy head of hair, disproportionately long neck, and his hands held behind him as he stood observing the people. He looked with curiosity upon that immense sea of faces, and the sea of faces returned the look with similar curiosity. In both there was a dash of comedy, almost farce, such as Shakespeare puts in his blackest tragedies. The crowd that hemmed around consisted I should think of thirty or forty thousand men, not a single one his personal friend—while, I have no doubt (so frenzied were the ferments of the time), many an assassin's knife and pistol lurked in hip or breast-pocket there, ready, soon as break and riot came.

But no break or riot came. The tall figure gave another relieving stretch or two of arms and legs; then with moderate pace, and accompanied by a few unknown-looking persons, ascended the portico-steps of the Astor House, disappeared through its broad entrance—and the dumb-show ended.—*From Walt Whitman's "Autobiographia."*\*

\* New York: Charles L. Webster & Co.

## TALK ABOUT BOOKS.

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knocking at the doors of the various isms and ologies of belief many honest truth-seekers, and claims that their longings are not left unanswered. Through all and enveloping all is to be discovered the power emanating from the Gospel, and up into its full light and glory all truly sincere souls will be led at last. It is a broad, uplifting story, dominated by charity.

It is necessary only to announce a new novel by the learned author of "An Egyptian Princess," and it will be eagerly sought for. "A Thorny Path,"\* a story of Egypt, is fully up to the high standard of Dr. Ebers' other works and is fascinating throughout.

"A Soul from Pudge's Corners"† is the story of how a strong, regal nature, utterly untutored in all that goes to make life worth living, found its own way up to noble womanhood. It is open to the criticism of being overdrawn in some particulars; it is the gifted author who bears a part in the elevating conversations rather than, as represented, the ignorant, uncultured, but aspiring heroine.

With a view to correcting the commonly held, mistaken ideas of people at home regarding missionary life, Mrs. Maxwell wrote "The Bishop's Conversion,"‡ a story of much grace and power. A sentence from Bishop Thoburn's Introduction aptly characterizes the work: "Such a presentation of various views of missionary life and labor can hardly fail to do much good . . . in creating better views and more healthy feelings among a large class of good Christian people who are numbered among the supporters of missions."

"Thrilling Scenes in the Persian Kingdom"§ is an interesting historical tale of long ago, blending the Bible and secular accounts of the ancient history of that land and its relations to other nations. To a group of young students in quest of knowledge, the aged Mordecai, Ezra, and Nehemiah, in turn tell how the people of God were preserved, led, and trained in this foreign kingdom; while Atarah narrates the history of the Persians as connected with the Greeks and other peoples.

"San Salvador"¶ is a weird unsatisfactory story with a fatuous mystery running through it, which is utterly unexplained both as to its

beginning and its ending. The moral teachings of the book, its lessons in philanthropy, and the broad religious spirit which finds in all systems of worship and of belief true tracings of the Christian doctrine, are worthy of a better embodiment than this tantalizing tale.

Two more of the series of Columbian Historical Novels are now ready, Vol. IV.\* narrating the events connected with the life of that noble type of womanhood, Pocahontas, and Vol. V.\* taking up the interesting period of 1620-1644. The author is succeeding in carrying out his plan of weaving the four centuries of American history into a connected and dramatic whole.

In the "Romance of a French Parsonage"† appear in full relief the characteristic traits ascribed to the people of France. A light mingling of the deep and the trivial things of life produces a jarring, unpleasant effect. The hero is the pastor of the parsonage who is a convert from Catholicism to Protestantism, and the strong point in the story is the denunciation of the confessional.

"Onoqua"‡ is a stirring story of Indian life written with the object of showing the need of educating the red race in order that they may become their own liberators. The author shows that in the Indians themselves lies the hope of their elevation.

A volume containing two short stories|| by Hall Caine shows in strong relief the distinguishing traits of this Manx author. Although not written in dialect the nationality of the characters is strongly marked. The genius of the island—that subtle something which eludes description and yet stamps a plain impress upon the people—is clearly reflected from the pages without the aid of their form of speech. Parental love is the keynote of both stories, and this passion, deep, tender, powerful, compels all things to yield to its demands and makes of self a complete sacrifice.—"Capt'n Davy's Honeymoon"§ by the same author cleverly shows the dialect of the land. A conjugal difficulty and how it was settled is its theme. It is a little comedy played so close on the borders of tragedy as frequently to probe deep down into the pathetic vein of the reader.

\*A Thorny Path. By Georg Ebers. Translated from the German by Clara Bell. New York: D. Appleton and Company.

†A Soul from Pudge's Corners. By Jessie F. O'Donnell. New York: G. W. Dillingham. 50 cts.

‡The Bishop's Conversion. By Ellen Blackmar Maxwell.—§Thrilling Scenes in the Persian Kingdom. By Edwin MacMinn. New York: Hunt & Eaton. Cincinnati: Cranston & Curtis. \$1.00.

¶San Salvador. By Mary Agnes Tincker. New York: Houghton, Mifflin and Company. \$1.25.

\*Pocahontas, a Story of Virginia. \*The Pilgrims, a Story of Massachusetts. By John R. Musick. Each \$1.50. New York: Funk & Wagnalls Company.

†The Romance of a French Parsonage. By M. Detham-Edwards. New York: Lovell, Gestefeld and Company. \$1.25.

‡Onoqua. By Frances C. Sparhawk. Boston: Lee and Shepard. 50 cts.

||The Last Confession and The Blind Mother. By Hall Caine. New York: Tait, Sons and Company. \$1.00.

§Capt'n Davy's Honeymoon. By Hall Caine. New York: D. Appleton and Company.



A tale of which genuine experience must have formed the bottom rock is, "When I Lived in Bohemia."\* No one on the outside could write in so pat a manner of the inmost inwardness of affairs. What it costs to live in that figurative land of aspiration is shown with mathematical precision, the calculations being made in the terms of the deepest meaning of life—its successes and defeats, its joys and cares, its agonies and raptures; but unlike the common run of statistical works this possesses a rare and delightful fascination.

The baneful power exerted over a people by superstition is graphically depicted in an Alaskan story, "Kin-da-shon's Wife."† To the hardships which nature imposes upon them in that rigorous climate, the benighted people, under their religious delusions, add hardships infinitely worse. Into the midst of many of their scenes of cruelty and persecutions the author leads the shuddering reader, who finds also there much intrinsic nobleness of character. The cry of the people for light, for some power to reach them in their suffering, Mrs. Willard translates into the Macedonian cry, "Come over and help us." And this cry she takes up and in the form of this moving and convincing book seeks to make it re-echo through Christian lands.

Miscellaneous. The first edition of this important reference book, "History of Presidential Elections,"‡ appeared in 1884 and it has since passed through three editions. There is a chapter on the campaign of 1884, and the election of Harrison in 1888, while the volume is brought down to date by a generous treatment of the National Conventions of 1892. This book is of permanent value for in it are to be found the answers to almost every inquiry relating to political elections in the nation.

"The Rescue of an Old Place"|| is a delightful account of how a deserted Massachusetts farm was purchased in the face of the disapprobation of all counselors, and converted into a pleasant home. To be sure it "furnished occupation the rest of a natural lifetime," but the occupation was most enjoyable, and the returns in every way—except, perhaps, financially—most satisfactory. The book is properly a treatise on landscape gardening, interspersed

with botanical sketches, and descriptions of natural scenery.

A book designed to help young men settle the momentous question of the choice of a calling is "What Shall I Learn?"\* Its plan is to give information concerning the different kinds of business, both professions and trades; to tell the history of all, the preparation necessary to carry them on, and the steps required to secure admission to them. It contains enough as a business guide to enable any one who is undecided to make an intelligent choice of a congenial calling.

A book† describing Mexico and the condition of society there during Mexico's transition from the power of political Romanism to civil and religious liberty, adds light from a new quarter to the glamour of romance that has always surrounded this country.

The power of an idea once firmly lodged in the mind, Dr. Buckley finds to be the explanation of the phenomena presented in faith-healing, Christian science, and similar beliefs and practices.‡ There is no gingerly handling of matters in his researches, but with characteristic thoroughness he goes to the bottom of things. His investigations are close and critical, but fair; his conclusions logical. Instances almost without number held as proofs conclusive by the advocates of these various beliefs are given and ruthlessly stripped of the superstitions thrown around them and then traced back to their origin, whence the marvelous is usually found to have disappeared. It remains for those holding opinions on these subjects opposite to his to make their arguments stronger and meet him in open debate.

A new edition of Shakespeare's plays has for its distinctive features the publishing of each drama in a small 3½x5 inch, finely illustrated volume, in flexible leather covers. The text is unabridged and conforms to the latest scholarly editions. The name, "The Ariel Shakespeare," || is taken from the expression in the "Tempest," "My dainty Ariel," and the work in every way meets the requirements of the descriptive word.

Volume X. of Chambers's Encyclopedia fin-

\* When I Lived in Bohemia. By Fergus Hume. New York: Tait, Sons and Company. \$1.25.

† Kin-da-shon's Wife. By Mrs. Eugene S. Willard. New York: Fleming H. Revell Company.

‡ History of Presidential Elections. By Edward Stanwood.—|| The Rescue of an Old Place. By Mary Caroline Robbins. Boston and New York: Houghton, Mifflin and Company.

\* What Shall I Learn? Practical Treatises Written by Practical Men for Young People. Philadelphia: Standard Publishing Co.

† Mexico in Transition. By William Butler, D.D. \$2.00. New York: Hunt & Eaton. Cincinnati: Cranston & Curtis.

‡ Faith-Healing, Christian Science, and Kindred Phenomena. By J. M. Buckley, LL.D. New York: The Century Co.

|| The Ariel Shakespeare. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 75 cents per volume (in a box).

ishes this valuable work.\* In good durable form, of fine appearance, and unfailing in all points of reliable information the work fully realizes the aim of its publishers.

Among Prang's publications are two elaborate monthly calendars,† one representing the life of Columbus, in color pictures by Victor A. Searles; the other showing in humorous and emblematic color designs by Walter Crane, the history of attempts made by various nations to conquer America.

#### BOOKS RECEIVED.

The Duchess of Powysland. By Grant Allen. New York: United States Book Company. \$1.00.  
 Englishman's Haven. By W. J. Gordon.—Commander

\* Chambers's Encyclopedia. Vol. X. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott. \$3.00 per vol.

† A Columbus Calendar. By Victor A. Searles. \$1.50.  
 Columbia's Calendar. By Walter Crane. \$1.50. Boston: L. Prang & Co.

Mendoza. By Julian Valera. 50 cts.—Hanging Moss. By Paul Lindsay. 50 cts.—Education from a National Standpoint. By Alfred Fouillée. Translated and edited by W. J. Greenstreet, M.A. \$1.50.—English Education. By Isaac Sharpless, Sc.D., LL.D. \$1.00.—Rousseau's Emile. Abridged, translated, and annotated by William H. Payne, Ph.D., LL.D. \$1.00. New York: D. Appleton and Company.

My Uncle and My Curé. By Jean De La Brète.—The Treasure-Book of Consolation. Compiled and edited by Benjamin Orme, M.A. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co.

Deutsche Volkslieder. Edited with Introduction and Notes by Horatio Stevens White. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Dr. Perdue. By Stinson Jarvis. Chicago: Laird and Lee.

First Steps in Philosophy. By William Mackentire Salter. Chicago: Charles H. Kerr and Company.

New Pocket Atlas. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co. 25 cts.

Revised Normal Lessons. By Jesse Lyman Hurlbut. New York: Hunt & Eaton. Cincinnati: Cranston & Curtis. Paper 25 cts; cloth 40 cts.

Materials for German Prose Composition. By H. C. G. von Jagemann. New York: Henry Holt & Company.

A New Curriculum. Found among the Posthumous Papers of Mr. Elbert Cole, M.A., F. A. S. P. S. E. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates.

#### SUMMARY OF IMPORTANT NEWS FOR FEBRUARY, 1893.

HOME NEWS.—February 2. Nomination by President Harrison of Judge Howell E. Jackson of Tennessee as successor to Justice Lamar on the bench of the Supreme Court.—Both branches of the Michigan legislature pass the act repealing the Miner election law.

February 3. Hawaiian commissioners arrive in Washington.—Election of the Rev. Dr. W. J. Tucker of Andover Theological School as president of Dartmouth College.—Southern lynchings brought to the attention of the United States Senate through a petition signed by the colored people of the District of Columbia.

February 6. Renomination of Carroll D. Wright of Massachusetts as commissioner of labor.

February 8. The ceremony of counting the electoral vote in the House of Representatives in the presence of both Houses of Congress. ‡

February 12. The far Northwest reports the cold for the past two weeks as unprecedented.

February 14. Nomination by the president of Myron M. Parker as a commissioner of the District of Columbia.

February 15. President Harrison sends to the Senate a message recommending the annexation of Hawaii to the United States, accompanied by the treaty concluded between Secretary Foster and the Hawaiian commissioners.

February 17. The jury in the case of Hugh O'Donnell, leader in the Homestead strike, and charged with murder, return a verdict of not guilty.

February 20. Death of General Beauregard.

February 22. President Harrison runs up the

stars and stripes on the armored cruiser *New York*.

FOREIGN NEWS.—February 1. Minister Stevens raises the United States flag at Honolulu and establishes a protectorate over Hawaii.—An earthquake shock and tidal wave cause great loss of life and property on the island of Zante off the western coast of Greece.

February 2. Serious bread riots in Marseilles, France.

February 5. Floods in Queensland, Australia, cause enormous loss of life and property; part of the city of Brisbane submerged.

February 7. The House of Commons vote confidence in the Gladstonian government 276 to 109.—Death of Algernon Sartoris, the husband of Nellie Grant Sartoris.

February 9. MM. Ferdinand and Charles de Lesseps, Fontane, Cottu, and Eiffel sentenced to imprisonment and fines by Judge Perivier in the French Court of Appeals.

February 13. Mr. Gladstone introduces the Home Rule bill in the House of Commons with a two hours' speech.

February 18. Popular agitation in favor of the German Army bill increasing.—The striking cotton spinners in Lancaster, Eng., agree to accept a reduction of two and a half per cent in their wages.

February 20. Death of Baron Bleichroder, the Berlin banker.

February 21. The Belfast Grand Lodge of Orangemen issue a manifesto against the Home Rule bill.

